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MEMBER

Education

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Volume VIII SEPTEMBER, 1942 Number 1

THE BEST KIND OF HIGH-SCHOOL TRAINING FOR MILITARY SERVICE*

In the Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

THE attack on Pearl Harbor by the Japanese before war was declared and the subsequent operations against the U. S. by the Axis Powers have brought about an upsurge of patriotic fervor in our country such as has no parallel in the memories of living men. Teachers and pupils in the secondary schools share in this enthusiasm and ask insistently, "What can we do?"

Many secondary school leaders have thought that one answer to the question would be to introduce military drill into the high school. Indicative of this viewpoint is the fact that the number of inquiries regarding military drill coming to the U. S. Office of Education has increased rapidly since December 7.

The reply which has been given to these inquiries is that the U. S. Army finds it is impossible at this time to supply equipment or to detail officer personnel as instructors in secondary schools desiring to introduce military drill. While this is usually accepted by the schools as a reasonable answer it is far from being a satisfactory answer to young and enthusiastic patriots.

Without prejudice to courses in military training already in existence, it may be stated that no one should be disappointed over lack of opportunity to take military drill before he enters the Army or the Navy. The armed services are equipped to give him the necessary drill in a short time after he enlists or is inducted. For some of his training in other respects, equally important to his military efficiency, the Army and Navy prefer to rely on the schools. Because of deficiencies, of many of those who come to them, the armed services, however, are constantly compelled to instruct recruits in areas and subjects in which the schools are entirely competent to supply the training. In the pages which follow effort is made to indicate in broad outline the contribution which schools can make to pre-induction training. ***The courses proposed are not a substitute for military training; they are military training in as real a sense as is military drill.***

*This statement has the approval of the U. S. Office of Education Wartime Commission and of the designated officers in charge of training in the U. S. Army and Navy.

The Army and Navy need competent, alert, loyal, brave, and healthy men who are able both to give orders and to obey them. No amount of technical or military skill can be considered a substitute for these essential qualities. They are produced through study and discipline, contact and association, competitive games and sports, and observance of the laws of health. The best agency available to American democracy for developing these characteristics in all youth has been and continues to be the schools, public and private.

The rigors of military discipline demand robust toughened bodies in a sense not required in ordinary civilian pursuits. The effective soldier or sailor is not only free from disqualifying defects; he is strong, vigorous, energetic, healthy, aggressive, and courageous. Work involving the large muscles can contribute abundantly to this objective. In the schools the physical education program can be made to yield important results through emphasis on healthful living and beneficial exercise for all, boys and girls alike, as never before. The paramount importance of good health leads to the conclusion that every pupil should be given periodical health examinations with additional examinations whenever the need appears; teachers should be watchful of pupil health at all times to identify cases needing attention. Of equal importance is the follow-up of the findings of health examinations with the homes and social services to make sure that necessary dental and medical care is supplied, that nutritious foods are provided, and that physical defects are corrected in so far as possible.

Over and beyond this there are certain skills and information which are useful in the armed forces. Many of them are of great importance also in civilian life and should, therefore, not be denied to other pupils, both girls and boys, who are ineligible to enter the armed forces. Some of the more important of these are listed below:

A. *One group of activities is important for survival under war conditions.* Efficiency in these activities may mean the difference between life and death for the pupils themselves. They are equally significant for girls and boys and ought to be included in the school program for all pupils. These are:

1. Air-raid and fire drills with adequate instruction about the protection of themselves and their homes. Military values, as well as added safety, result if the drills are carried out with exactness and precision.

2. First-aid, home hygiene, and life-saving instruction.

B. *Certain activities and skills are useful in the armed forces.* Because of their character these probably may most appropriately be intro-

duced into physical education courses, although some schools may wish to develop special classes in them. Since the activities are designed to develop endurance and strength, a thorough physical examination should precede the assignment of any boy to this premilitary training program. A more generous total-time allotment than usually given to physical education is recommended. Necessary equipment should be provided, but elaborate facilities are not essential to an effective program; for instance, an open field may be substituted for a heated gymnasium. The armed forces fight under all conditions and in all kinds of weather, summer or winter. Given selected sturdy boys, the activities should tax their endurance and skill, due allowance being made for their strength and age; hard soldiers cannot be developed by soft methods. The following activities are illustrative:

1. Hard-driving competitive sports and games involving physical contact.
2. Swimming.
3. Tumbling.
4. Boxing and wrestling.
5. Strenuous "setting-up" exercises.
6. Hiking and pitching camp.
7. Jumping and running.
8. Skiing.

C. *A third classification may be made of areas of information useful in the armed forces.* Much of the pretraining for military service under this classification may be achieved by changes of emphasis in the established secondary school courses; more of English for use, especially practice in understanding and preparing directions, dispatches, and accounts, whether orally or in writing; in social studies why we are at war, the historical background and the current changes in the war situation, what we must do to win the war, and the moral obligation of each one to serve country and community; in mathematics a nearer approach to 100 percent mastery of fundamentals; in science the elements of physics and chemistry—these are knowledges and informations which the Army and Navy especially desire that their personnel should have.

In addition it is advantageous for each recruit to have specialized knowledge in one or more areas. Such specialization, however, should not be at the expense of a thorough knowledge in the basic areas already mentioned. The pupil should be advised regarding the type of specialized information most useful to him by the guidance service set up by the school. In large schools, special premilitary courses may be introduced. Differentiation in assignments, special units, home projects, and committee undertakings are methods by which a teacher may provide specialized information in any school, large or small, without

having a whole class give extended attention to an enterprise which is of special significance only to some of its members. Some of the specialized information* needed is:

1. International Morse code.
2. Radio and telephone operation and repair, including transmission and receipt of messages.
3. Automobile and airplane maintenance and repair.
4. Machine-shop work.
5. Foundry work.
6. Photography.
7. Map reading.
8. Home nursing (especially for girls).
9. Personal hygiene and nutrition.

The program that is here suggested for premilitary training in secondary schools stresses:

A. Good health, physical fitness, endurance, safety from war hazards. In most schools these results will be achieved principally through the health and physical education program.

B. Fundamental information and patriotic motives for fighting men gained through basic subjects such as mathematics, science, English, and social studies.

C. Specialized knowledge and vocational skill useful in the armed forces to such extent as the school is equipped to meet the need.

*This list can be materially lengthened. In making additions, however, the school should give consideration to (1) whether it has the facilities in equipment, teaching materials, and personnel to offer effective instruction in the specialized areas, and (2) whether the Army and the Navy may not be equipped to do a better job in the specialized areas while the school centers its attention on instruction in subjects where it is in position to make the best contribution.

[*Reported from the* Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, *XXVI (May, 1942), 5-8.*]

THE decrease in school population will show a reversal in 1946 because of the recent increase in the birth rate, according to studies of the U. S. Office of Education. This increase will continue for several years as indicated by the present tendency of the birth rate per 1000 to increase as shown here:

1920	23.7	1935	16.9
1925	21.3	1940	17.9
1930	18.9	1941	19.0

WHY IS A WIFE NOT A TEACHER?

E. C. Bolmeier

In the School Executive

If there are good reasons why married women should ever have been disqualified as regular teachers in the public schools they have never been satisfactorily explained. When the supply of unmarried teachers was adequate to fill all teaching positions, there was apparently no great necessity to refute the weak arguments customarily advanced in defense of discriminating against married women. Now, however, since there is a critical need for more good teachers than are available under existing eligibility requirements it is expedient to examine the validity of arguments and appropriateness of policies designed to disqualify married women from the teaching profession.

Coercive measures designed to prevent marriage can be injurious to the mental health.—Requirements which tend to disturb teachers' personality adjustments should be examined very carefully, because of the consequent effect on the children in their care. Boards of education should take care, therefore, lest they devise local school laws which are in conflict with the laws of nature. Yet if a teacher desires to marry and experience normal family life she must, in some communities, give up her teaching position for which she has spent many years in preparation.

The potential force of the urge to marry is not always considered when a young lady begins her professional training as a teacher, and consequently she does not fully realize the unnatural sacrifices the profession will demand of her. Many psychologists and psychiatrists are of the opinion that this selfdenial requires an adjustment which only a minority can satisfactorily make.

The fact that one does not marry, however, is no indication of maladjustment, providing the individual concerned is acting voluntarily and without frustration. Certain rare individuals spend their entire lives as unmarried teachers and still possess the highest type of good mental health. This is true, though, not because of the restrictions placed on them, but rather in spite of them. The causes of warped personalities frequently manifested in spinster school teachers can often be traced to this unjust and unnecessary restriction placed on them by society.

It is not the school's function to keep married women in the home.—Perhaps it is true that it is socially desirable to have women, or men too, for that matter, spend considerable time in the home. It is doubtful though that it is the function of school authorities to bring about that situation by declaring married women ineligible to teach, and to

thereby deprive the schools of a potential source of capable teachers.

The opportunity to engage in activities other than housekeeping is the very tonic needed for some energetic ladies who are professionally trained. Moreover, the employment of trained and efficient married teachers, who can be released from routine household duties and who desire to continue their chosen profession, is a means of utilizing to a fuller extent our great human resources, which is so needed in the war effort today.

It is not the school's function to attempt to equalize family income within the community.—Many capable married teachers have been denied teaching positions because of the fact that their husbands were receiving incomes which were sufficient to maintain an adequate living for the entire family. Frequently a position is offered to an inferior candidate who appears to need the income more than does a superior teacher who is not wholly dependent on the salary attached to the teaching position. Such action on the part of a school official is indicative of a belief that the schools exist for the benefit of the teacher rather than the child. Whether the policy is just or not depends on whether the school is an educational or a charitable institution.

This illogical restriction gives rise to questionable practices.—A questionable practice that prevails in numerous school systems is that which permits the employment of married teachers—but with reduced status and salary. The usual administrative procedure where such policy prevails is to assign the married teacher to the staff as a "substitute teacher" with no assurance of the permanency which is an important incentive to long-time planning. A regular lady teacher who marries while under contract is automatically demoted to the "substitute" status. Her salary may be reduced considerably, even though the teaching load and other school obligations remain constant.

An irreconcilable supplement to such a regulation sometimes provides for an increased salary for the men teachers who become married. Any school board that promotes such a discriminatory policy in the salary schedule gives evidence of an assumption that the regulation of marriage is a more important function of the school than is the selection of teachers on the basis of merit. It is difficult to understand how marriage impairs the teaching effectiveness of ladies and improves that of men.

It is not uncommon for school administrators to assign married ladies who have good teaching records to clerical or secretarial positions in the school system, even though they may be better qualified for actual teaching. This practice is another manifestation of maneuvering

around an impractical regulation that should be abolished.

Some otherwise progressive school authorities still tolerate the practice of barring married ladies from the regular teaching staff on the grounds that it represents the wish of the school board or the community. But a superintendent's first responsibility is to supervise and guide his board in the formulation of modern educational policies. If disqualifying capable married teachers deprives a school system of needed services that cannot otherwise be supplied, the board should be advised of that fact.

In some instances a school administrator may have some hesitancy in advocating the employment of married teachers, because he may himself be the husband of a lady who is trained and experienced in the teaching profession, and his advocacy might be interpreted as an attempt to provide employment for his wife in the school system. There should be no ban on any person who is best qualified to perform the services demanded, even though that person might conceivably be the wife of the school administrator who is responsible for the recommendation of teachers to be employed.

Excluding all married ladies from the eligible list of teachers is often justified as a means of preventing embarrassing encounters with friends, politicians, and others who persistently seek teaching positions for their wives or the wives of other persons. But one of the important responsibilities of school boards is to consider the merits of every available teacher without being influenced by threats, appeals, and bribes.

Despite the fact that discrimination against married teachers has always deprived schools from obtaining the services of many persons who were well qualified to teach, school administrators in some communities have been unable to convince their school boards that abolition of the regulation would be for the welfare of the school system.

During the past two decades, while the teacher supply greatly exceeded the demand, schoolboard members and school administrators might have believed they were justified in disqualifying married teachers as a means of limiting the field of applicants. Today, however, the teaching ranks are becoming thinned by the call to military service and the lure of positions that are more lucrative than teaching. Some school systems are already experiencing great difficulties in securing eligible candidates to fill vacancies. Numerous suggestions are made as a means of alleviating the difficulty. One suggestion is to increase the salary of teachers to a scale somewhat comparable to that of other professions and vocations in order to attract more good talent to the teaching profession. There can be no

doubt as to the wisdom and justice of such a policy, but even if it is adopted it is not likely that sufficient school funds will be provided to boost salaries to the point that will draw enough capable candidates to meet the needs.

Another suggestion to increase the teacher supply is to lower the academic requirements. Some school systems have already announced that persons with two years of college work will be eligible to teach during the emergency, whereas four years of college work were previously required. Such a step of lowering standards is certain to lower teaching efficiency and should be resorted to only after all other alternatives have been considered.

It seems obvious, if we are to maintain a high standard of teacher selection from a diminishing supply of capable candidates, that it is absolutely essential to remove all artificial barriers to the teaching profession which turn aside excellent teaching talent.

Some school authorities may decide to lift the ban on married lady teachers "for the duration" and then revert back to the antiquated practice of disqualifying them. Such a step would be better than to retain the *status quo* during an emergency. A better step, however, would be to abandon forever a policy which hampers personality adjustments, discourages capable persons from entering the teaching profession, and deprives the schools of some of the best teaching talent.

E. C. Bolmeier is Director of Secondary Education in the Jackson, Mississippi, Public Schools. Reported from the School Executive, *LXI (June, 1942), 24-25.*

DURING the middle ages Europe was far too much influenced by celibate men. Today much too big a part in public life is played by celibate women, and too little by mothers. I find no new ideas more genuinely disgusting than that held by many educated authorities that a woman ceases to be suitable as a teacher when she becomes a mother. —J. B. S. Haldane as quoted in the *School Executive*.

THE "HALO" AROUND "PERSONALITY"

EDWIN G. FLEMMING

In the Teachers College Record

WORDS are interesting things. Often we use them and know their meaning in context and yet cannot define them with accuracy. There seems to be a "halo" of meaning surrounding many words. "Hard" and "difficult" are generally regarded as synonyms, but to say "This task is hard" seems to have a different meaning from "This task is difficult." "Hard" seems to be more emotionally toned than "difficult." "Difficult" is a controlled word; it specifies a considered judgment. Perhaps the other meaning of "hard" influences its feeling tone. A "hard" task is like a rock, impenetrable; or perhaps the softer vowels in "difficult" make a task less arduous.

Similarly, other words have their aura or fringe of meaning. "Personality," for example, has a vague, uncertain meaning which is difficult to define accurately. "The aim of the school is to develop the personality of the student." It is like the pronouncement that the aim of America in the last war was "to make the world safe for democracy."

"Personality" may mean almost anything; and sometimes it means nothing except a desire to catch the popular fancy. We want to know what is specifically meant, what are the conceptual constituents of its "halo."

To find out what constituted the "aura" around the term when used in such a statement as "She has personality," the teachers of 84 girls in the last two years of Horace Mann High School were asked to indicate on a scale of 10 "how much personality" each student possessed. These teachers were of long tenure, had known the girls for several years, and were familiar with many types of rating scales.

At the same time the ratings were made, the teachers were asked to check from a list of 46 descriptive items the ones applying to each girl under consideration. Since there were from three to six teachers for each of the 84 "subjects" we had a total of 303 reactions in which the term "personality" was used and the approximate amount of "personality" indicated. Of course these responses were all subjective, as we wanted them to be in order to study the composition of the "halo."

When the data were examined, it was found that *all* of the items seemed to be related to the criterion, "personality." There *was* a halo effect. The coefficient of correlation between the teachers' ratings on "personality" and the average number of traits checked for each girl was .82. In other words, a girl said by a teacher to have a "great deal of personality" was also said to be de-

scribed by a large number of the 46 descriptive items.

The next step was to reduce the list of 46 items to a few which might embody all the "meanings" contained in the 46, and thus make the teachers' meaning of the word "personality" understandable. For the purpose of this reduction Thurstone's simplified method of factor analysis was used. It yielded very interesting results. We found that four general factors accounted for all the interrelationships among the descriptive items. All the items had a positive relationship to one of these factors; relations with the other three factors were sometimes positive and sometimes negative.

Analysis of the data indicated that the meaning of the word "personality" when used by the teachers in such an expression as "She has a great deal of personality," probably is: "She is interesting in conversation, she is competent, has wide interests, is intelligent, is athletic, is a good sport, is sincere and adaptable."

Such a definition of "personality" would seem to be more understandable and useful to educators than the dictionary definition, because it is much more definite and specific and splits a possible catchword into the essentials of its "halo."

The evaluation of these characteristics in any given student would have to be more or less subjective, but on the other hand we can collect specific instances of practically all of them. Take "interestingness in conversation" for example. The criteria of what is interesting in conversation may be quite subjective, but we can all cite specific examples of a student's ability to hold the rapt attention of his listeners.

Whether or not a person has wide interests is easily determined. Whether or not a student is athletic is also easily ascertained. But here we must attempt to understand what lies behind participation in athletics in its significance to personality. We get a clue from the qualities with which "athletic" is associated in its configuration: attractive personal appearance, a smiling countenance, sociability. The configuration suggests the expression "a radiant joy of life" of which these specific qualities are manifestations and of which the term "athletic" is partially descriptive.

Intelligence is of course measurable by standardized tests, but this kind of intelligence is not exactly what was meant by the teachers in this investigation. When we cast the terms into configurations we found intelligence to be most closely associated with fairness, good judgment, honesty, idealism, and understanding, rather than with cleverness, culture, originality, talent, or wide interests.

To be a good sport means, among other things, to be a good loser, giving the other fellow a chance. It is

associated in our analysis with generosity, good nature, helpfulness, and naturalness. Specific evidence of good sportsmanship can certainly be found in any school situation.

Sincerity is perhaps the most subjective of the eight traits. But probably experienced teachers can spot the extremes of it quite accurately. It is associated with industry, dependability, and loyalty.

It may be said then that while no adequate objective method of measuring these eight qualities has yet been devised, certainly they are much more subject to illustration than "personality." Further, we can all think of ways of inculcating or stimulating the development or acquisition of most of them, whereas we don't know what to do to develop "personality." If these eight descriptive items are the major constituents of what we mean by "personality," as the correlation of .80 seems to suggest, then in bringing about a realization of the catalog promise to "develop personality" it would be helpful if teachers would direct attention to the culture of these eight essential parts. In time, adequate objective measures of these specific characteristics may be forthcoming.

Reported from the Teachers College Record, *XLIII (April, 1942), 564-69.*

A POLL OF JUNIOR OPINION has recently been established by the Parents' Institute of New York City for boys and girls 8 to 17 years old. It is modeled after the famous Gallup Poll with Dr. Gallup's two sons, serving as consultants. Here is a typical vote:

Question.—There is considerable difference of opinion as to when we should plan for peace following the war. What do you think?

	Boys	Girls
I think we should win the war first, and then plan for the kind of peace we want.	59%	48%
I think we should start planning now for peace after the war	37	39
No opinion	4	13

Question.—In some countries boys begin to study to be army pilots when they are still in school. Would you like this? (Although intended for boys only, a number of girls answered this question.)

	Boys	Girls
I would like to take a course in school, in addition to my regular lessons which would fit me to become a flyer as soon as I am old enough	68%	15%
I'd rather finish my school work first	20	14
I am not interested in learning how to fly	12	19
No opinion		52

WASTEFUL FOREIGN-LANGUAGE REQUIREMENTS

FREDERICK E. BOLTON

In School and Society

THIS is an opportune time to slough off some of the retarding traditions of the school curriculum. When pupils and parents ask for more practical subjects, the traditionalist educator is sure to say: "But we can't get time for them. The curriculum is already overloaded." Which is true. With all the requirements in mathematics, foreign languages, and archaic English there is no time for typewriting, elementary law, insurance, household arts, first aid, woodworking, etc. If your child wants these he must give up the idea of college. If he longs to enter college, he must take the foreign languages and mathematics. These two fields alone mortgage a fourth, and often two-thirds of the whole four years in high school.

Right now teachers of Spanish are using the psychology of defense to lure students into their classes. They argue that we need to build up friendly relations with South American countries. We certainly do. But the argument that a knowledge of foreign languages makes for friendly relations among nations just does not make sense. All educated Germans and millions of the common people have a perfect command of French and English. For generations the educated classes in Europe have been highly trained in at least two or three foreign tongues. And see how they hate each other! We are now at peace with China, whose language is utterly unknown to most Americans, and at war with Germany whose language has been required of millions of us.

Understanding of a foreign people may, of course, be aided by a real *mastery* of their language. But mastery of a language is not acquired in a high-school course of two or three years. The average boy or girl who has taken a foreign language for two years cannot read a newspaper, understand a lecture, or order his breakfast correctly in the foreign tongue.

Few students study a foreign language long enough for any kind of mastery. Dvorak's investigation showed that of those who have met the foreign-language requirements of the Ph.D. degree, less than half ever read anything in those languages.

Of course pupils should learn about South American people. They should know about all the countries of the world. They should acquire that knowledge through books, newspapers, magazines, and talks in English.

This article is no broadside against teaching foreign languages in the schools. There is a great need for many more individuals who have really mastered a foreign lan-

guage. Certainly foreign languages should be taught. Not just German, French, and Spanish, but also Russian, Norwegian, Swedish, Chinese, Japanese, Polish, etc. But this does not mean that every school should teach all of them. And still more certainly it does not mean that every child should study any of them. They should be taught far better and more extensively to the few who have aptitudes for them and interest enough to really master them.

It would be well to permit—or require—all pupils to enroll for a "tryout" course in foreign languages. One semester would be enough to discover those who have special language interests, abilities, and vocational language needs. This would probably not include more than 10 percent of the school population. These should be informed of the opportunities—and also of the long grind ahead if they wish to achieve success. They should be given an opportunity to continue foreign-language study long enough for real mastery to be achieved. Society would then get some tangible returns from the large investment in foreign-language teaching.

The other 90 percent should be awarded a passing grade if they had tried, regardless of their achievement, and given our blessing and advice to spend their time on other things in which they could succeed. All of them could succeed in something.

The superficial and fleeting knowledge that most people have of the foreign languages they have studied would be ludicrous if it were not so tragic. Think of the tremendous waste of the public's hard-earned dollars which are frittered away.

Nearly half the boys called for the draft are rejected because of physical defects. Why not more time in school for building sound bodies and inculcating health habits? Why not the elements of nutrition and dietetics for all high-school girls? Every boy and girl should learn about family budgets, insurance plans, old-age security saving, and the fundamentals of banking. Why postpone these to college and even then make them purely elective? In a machine age, some knowledge of machines and skill in the use of tools has potential value in the life of every citizen.

These are just hints of the things the high school should teach, and could teach if there were time. That time can be found by sloughing off the dead waste of required subjects that are nonfunctional for 75 percent of the pupils in the schools.

Frederick E. Bolton is Professor of Education, University of Washington. Reported from School and Society, *LVI (July 4, 1942). 1-4.*

ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS FOR THE ARMED FORCES

FRANCIS J. BROWN

WHAT is the United States Army offering in the way of adult education for the boys in the service? The answer reveals the most stupendous educational program of its kind ever conducted. Every activity in this vast enterprise has one objective and one end—to increase the effective striking power of the individual and of the fighting unit.

There is another basic principle that is equally important. Although training and leisure-time activities are separately administered there are no sharp lines of demarcation. The man who is learning to repair an engine is receiving an education that gives direction to his leisure-time interests, and the man who takes part in an amateur dramatic performance is receiving the kind of satisfaction that makes him a more effective soldier.

Today, more than a million men are in schools conducted by the armed forces. Hundreds of thousands are taking correspondence courses and thousands more are assigned to civilian schools. Most of the service schools are specialist schools, each teaching a specific area of knowledge and skill.

In the Navy, each recruit spends eight weeks in a basic training station. Then approximately every third man is selected and sent to one of the more than 50 *A* schools for specialist training in such fields as internal combustion engines, metal and woodworking, and electronics. After sea duty, thousands are returned to study in *B* schools, which carry on more advanced courses. Still others, carefully selected, go to one of the 25 *C* schools for highly specialized training in such fields as optics, bomb sights, and aerology. Almost 50 percent of all Navy and Marine Corps enlistees attend either the *B* or *C* schools.

The Army and Navy are also utilizing the services of civilian educational institutions, both by borrowing their instructors and by assigning men to institutions for specialist training. More than 100 colleges and technical schools are offering courses to officers and enlisted men.

Napoleon said that morale was three times as important as materiel. Chief of Staff Marshall placed the odds in favor of morale at five or even ten to one. The Morale Division—now called Special Service—was set up in July, 1940. A Special Service officer serves with each Army, Army Corps, and Division, usually assisted by full-time specialists in recreation and athletics. Each regiment has a recreation officer in charge of athletics and leisure-time activities. Through the Welfare and Recreation sections of the Bureau of

Navigation, comparable provision is made for the men of the Navy.

Just as it is impossible to differentiate among welfare, education, and recreation, so it is difficult to describe educational activities. The Army, and to a lesser degree, the Navy, follow a policy of local autonomy, and a camp or divisional commander may develop, within the framework of the regulations, an extensive educational program. Certainly it can be said that never has so much thought and money been given to the intangible personal needs of the fighting man. The Army and Navy maintain the largest motion-picture chain in the nation, and the man in service may see a film before his younger brother sees it on Broadway. Soldier dramatics are carried on in many camps under the direction of qualified advisers. Bands and orchestras have been developed under trained leadership. An experimental program has been completed for training a song leader in every group. More than 300 newspapers are published in camps and posts and plans are under way for an all-Army paper with a special overseas edition.

The Army library service has some 600 libraries with 2,000,000 books. The new libraries are combined with the service clubs which have been completed since the war began. Small libraries are placed in hospitals, company day rooms, on board transports, and at outposts.

The activities more specifically thought of as educational fall into four general fields: correspondence courses, group instruction, informal activities, and educational readjustment.

For the first time in our Army, enlisted men have an opportunity to continue their education at any level through correspondence instruction. An Army Institute has been established at Madison utilizing the University of Wisconsin's extension faculty. Seventy-two courses will be offered covering almost the entire conventional range of instruction. In addition, enlisted men who desire credit may enroll through the Institute in courses offered by any of 79 colleges and universities, with the Army paying half the cost of textbooks and tuition.

Group instruction varies widely among the camps. The lectures and discussion worked out under General Lear of the Second Army illustrate the independent development of educational activities. The Second Army program was designed to give the soldier a more coherent understanding of his country, its constitution and history, of the map of the world and America's place on it, and of the rise of the world crisis and its revolutionary meaning. The program was considered training and given during regular training hours rather than in the soldier's leisure time. The Army's Bureau of Public Relations has just completed

the first series in an orientation course having a similar purpose.

Through the initiative of officers and enlisted men, more or less formal courses are being given in many fields by military personnel. There are many regular discussion groups and many informal courses on divers subjects are given in mess halls, dayrooms, and barracks. Schools and colleges near army posts are cooperating in the development of such courses. One institution is supplying more than 20 voluntary instructors.

The informal educational activities are too varied to be described in detail. They include hobby groups, essay and public speaking contests, and planned trips to points of interest.

Through the joint Army and Navy Committee on Welfare and Recreation a close liaison is maintained between government and civilian activities affecting troops. The committee is financed through funds appropriated by the War and Navy Departments and also has a grant from the Carnegie Foundation. The committee operates largely through subcommittees and special consultants. Dr. Clarence Dykstra was appointed as the representative of educators on the committee. Among the committee's recommendations to date are the establishment of correspondence instruction; the more effective utilization of the educational resources in personnel within the armed forces; the establishment of a lecture program and discussion groups; and the development of educational films.

In 1917, less than 20 per cent of the Army were high-school graduates; today more than 60 per cent have completed the twelfth grade. In almost every company are college graduates and former teachers—men able and eager on their own time to contribute in developing educational services in terms of the expressed needs of the men.

Finally, and wholly as a question, may I raise what is in my judgment one of the basic issues facing education today—to what extent is it possible to develop the will to win wholly through emphasis on the ideals *for* which we are fighting? May it not be necessary to lay equal emphasis on that *against* which we are fighting? Has the time not come when tolerance must give way to intolerance and reasoned judgment to propaganda aimed to instill hate and the will to destroy? I do not know the answer.

Francis J. Brown is Executive Secretary of the Subcommittee on Education for the Joint Army and Navy Committee on Welfare and Education. Reported from an address before the American Association of Collegiate Registrars, May 25, 1942, at Chicago, Illinois.

ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS OF VISUAL AIDS

M. Richard Dickter

In the School Review

THE purpose of this article is to describe the various types of visual aids in current use, their advantages and disadvantages, and the apparatus necessary for using each. The development of content material for each of these aids, making possible their wider use, offers a new and worthwhile field of endeavor to teachers. Appropriate content for each of three purposes is needed: to motivate interest, to enrich subject matter, and to provide specific instructional materials. Once the content is established, it then becomes necessary to decide what type of visual aid is best adapted for particular material. This discussion of available visual aids will serve to clarify the latter problem.

Opaque pictorial materials.—Opaque pictorial materials, such as photographs and illustrations on post cards and those taken from books, magazines, and similar sources, are numerous, easily obtained, and relatively inexpensive. A single picture of this kind is frequently more effective than a lengthy description. Unless there is a sufficient number of them for the entire class, the main limitation of these pictures is that they can be seen by only one pupil or by a small group of pupils at a time. This difficulty can be overcome by projecting the pictures, if they are not too large, onto a screen by means of an opaque projector.

Advantages of the opaque projector.—(1) By means of reflected light the opaque projector will project any opaque flat or nearly flat material, such as drawings, graphs, diagrams, and any written or typewritten material, such as lists of examples and problems. (2) The opaque projector will reproduce color on the screen. (3) The device is extremely simple to operate. (4) It is possible to buy a combination projector for opaque materials and for standard glass slides, which measure three and a fourth by four inches. The change from one type of projection to the other can be made instantly. By means of suitable accessories this combination projector can likewise be adapted for the projection of two-by-two-inch glass slides and 35-mm. filmstrips.

Disadvantages of the opaque projector.—(1) Because the opaque projector projects by reflected rather than by transmitted light, much of the light is lost. It is necessary, therefore, that the room in which the projection is taking place be thoroughly darkened. (2) The opaque projector is rather bulky in shape, but this fact is not a serious consideration so far as portability is concerned because the newer models are light in weight.

The Glass Slide.—The glass slide is viewed and projected by transmitted light. The outside dimensions of the standard American glass slide are three and a fourth by four inches. The substandard two-by-two-inch glass slide is also being used because it is somewhat less expensive to produce and because it requires less space for storage. However, the smaller slide offers less surface on which to work, and it must be made more carefully. This slide must be magnified by more diameters than the larger one in order to obtain a screen image of the same size. Therefore, any defects in the smaller slide will become more apparent. All other things being equal, it will also be necessary to use a more powerful lamp in the projector to obtain a screen image of the same size and brilliancy as is obtained with a slide of standard size.

The glass slide usually consists of the following items: (1) the glass plate or other material containing the subject to be projected, (2) a mat to mask off a picture area no larger than the aperture gate of the projector, (3) cover glasses to protect the picture surface, (4) binding tape to bind together the several parts of the slide, and (5) a thumbmark to indicate the proper position of the slide when it is placed in the projector. Glass slides may be made by the person who wishes to use them, or they are available for loan or sale from numerous agencies.

The glass slide can be viewed by transmitted light for individual use, or it can be projected by transmitted light onto a screen for group use. Standard slides measuring three and a fourth by four inches are projected by means of slide projectors of the same size; the smaller slides measuring two inches square, by projectors of the smaller size. It is possible to adapt the larger projectors for use with the smaller slides.

Advantages of the glass slide.—(1) It offers maximum brilliance on the screen. (2) The slide may be left in the projector for any length of time. (3) It may be used in a room not completely darkened. (4) Glass slides are easily made by the person who wishes to use them. (5) They can be conveniently arranged for use in any desired order.

Limitations of the glass slide.—(1) A large collection may require considerable storage space. (2) The slides are easily broken. (3) They are somewhat expensive, although not unduly so in relation to their value.

The 35-mm. Filmstrip.—The filmstrip consists of a sequence of pictures on a strip of 35-mm. film, either in black and white or in color, made in any miniature camera taking 35-mm. film. The pictures may be either of single-frame size, three-fourths of an inch by one inch, or of double-frame size, one and a half by one inch.

Pictures made on natural-color

film are returned processed as positives on film, ready for viewing or projection. Pictures made on the usual black-and-white film are developed as negatives, from which the desired number of positive copies on film may be made by contact printing. There is now available a black-and-white reversal film, which, when processed, results in positive images on the film, thus eliminating the intermediate step of making negatives.

Sound filmstrips can be prepared by making a series of still pictures on 35-mm. film and recording the necessary explanatory material on records. The record, if recorded at 78 revolutions per minute, may be reproduced on any standard phonograph as the pictures are projected.

Because these 35-mm. pictures are so small, it is customary to project them. Any projector for two-inch square slides may be used for the purpose if it is equipped with a 35-mm. filmstrip attachment. The standard glass-slide projector may also be used by fitting it with one of these attachments.

Advantages.— (1) The filmstrip is economical to make, to buy, or to ship from place to place. (2) It is easily made. (3) It is light in weight. (4) Very little storage space is required. A roll of from 18 to 75 pictures may be kept in a small can. (5) There is no danger of getting the pictures out of order. (6) There is no danger of breakage.

Disadvantages.—(1) The unprotected film is easily damaged. (2) It is impossible to vary the order of presentation of the individual pictures except by skipping back and forth. However, these two limitations can be overcome by cutting apart the several frames and mounting the individual transparencies on two-by-two-inch glass slides.

Three-Dimensional Pictures.— The three-dimensional picture, known as a stereograph, has the desirable feature of depth, the advantage of reality being thus added to the visualization. This advantage is of importance in any situation, but particularly in solid geometry, where so many pupils find it difficult to visualize three dimensions in two-dimensional drawings.

There are special two-lens cameras for producing three-dimensional pictures. However, they can also be made on regular black-and-white or color film with any still camera which is fitted with a stereograph attachment over the lens to give the necessary two images on the same piece of film. The film is processed in the usual manner. The 35-mm. miniature still camera is particularly adapted for producing stereographs inexpensively in this way.

For individual use, the resulting stereographs may be viewed as positives on film (in either filmstrip or mounted-slide form) or as positives on glass or paper (either contact

size or enlarged) through suitable stereograph viewers. For group use, 35-mm. stereographs (in either filmstrip or mounted-slide form) may be projected on a screen, by means of projectors made or adapted for the purpose, and viewed through suitable spectacles.

Motion Pictures. — The motion picture, silent and sound, is sufficiently familiar that little need be said about it except that it should not be used for instructional purposes unless motion is essential. In other cases the still picture will serve better and at much less expense.

The question of silent versus sound pictures is still a controversial one. Economy and ease of production would seem to indicate that the silent film, either with titles or with spoken comment by the teacher, should be used in preference to sound film if the dialogue on the sound track offers no distinct advantages. It should be kept in mind that the comments on the sound track cannot be adapted to particular teaching situations if such adaptation should be advisable.

M. Richard Dickter teaches mathematics at Furness Junior High School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Reported from the School Review, *L (May, 1942), 362-67.*

Current Quotations:

WILLARD E. GIVENS, Executive Secretary, National Education Association: "Here at home the federal government is asking for the conservation of rubber and gasoline, of tires and scrap iron, and other materials. These are vital, but human resources are more so. It is high time the federal government spends a few million dollars a year in the development of the manpower and womanpower which is vital in winning the war and the peace to follow. The need for general federal aid for education in states which are unable to support an adequate school system is amply documented."

ALONZO G. GRACE, Commissioner of Education for Connecticut: "No person should be permitted to play with the destiny of boys and girls. Teaching is a responsibility too important to leave to the amateur. It is no place for the unemployable or unsuccessful in other fields."

PLANNING FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

WARREN C. SEYFERT

In the Journal of Educational Sociology

No one can describe exhaustively the social and personal needs to which our secondary schools should be prepared to minister in the postwar years, yet certain of those needs begin to be evident, at least in gross outline. In the first place, the schools must be ready to exercise wider functions and greater social responsibility than they have in the past. Paralleling changes in function and in part causing them will be changes in the character and dimensions of the population served by the schools. Radical changes in methodology will be needed to deal effectively with these new functions and the modified school population. Finally, the schools must be ready to give their instruction a social orientation essentially different from the one which has marked, and continues to characterize, their philosophy and teaching.

The end of the war will pose the problem of occupationally rehabilitating the millions now in the armed forces and in defense industries. The schools will certainly be asked to share in the solution of this problem. Involved in this rehabilitation will be occupational guidance, retraining, and placement. The area in which the schools are best qualified to contribute is probably that of guidance. They have made notable progress in this field. But if they are to serve postwar needs, the prevailing custom of restricting the guidance services of the school to adolescents will have to be sharply modified. Our school guidance departments now lack the experience and the background for counseling adult workers, and they have not perfected the contacts and administrative machinery for working effectively above the secondary school level.

Occupational guidance under postwar conditions will make little sense unless it is accompanied by ample opportunities for occupational retraining. The schools should examine the current large-scale training program by way of learning as much from it as possible, and prepare at least preliminary sketches for the postwar program.

Third in the area of occupational rehabilitation are job-placement needs. There is already a growing recognition of the school's responsibility for helping young people to make their initial job adjustments. The schools should extend their cooperation with public employment agencies in order to have ready effective community and national organizations to meet postwar needs.

Our war efforts are demonstrating the benefits of genuine group action. The need for cooperative planning and doing surely will not lessen

with the close of hostilities. Our schools ought to be ready to serve not only as training centers for cooperative skills but also as sources of ideational leadership. Such leadership, of course, cannot be seized but must be earned. The experiences of the war years ought to give the schools abundant opportunities to prepare themselves to exercise real community leadership in postwar society. Perhaps this is only another way of saying that the years just ahead are going to demonstrate unmistakably the soundness of the community-school idea. While the work of the schools with children will certainly be modified, the most striking change in the schools will be the degree of their concern for affairs now ordinarily not thought to be "educational" in nature. In the future, the high schools must be less insistent than they have in the past on existing in social isolation. They must be ready at the end of the war to deal with a "school" population different from the traditional school group. They will be called on to work, both in and out of school, with adult men and women. It is also probable that postwar adolescents will have a less naive and sheltered outlook on life than our boys and girls today.

Because the schools will be working in part with adults it will no longer be possible to think of the student body in terms of those who spend the hours from nine to three in the classroom. We will need to adjust our administrative practices to the needs and convenience of a large number of adults who can come for instruction only at times outside the traditional school day.

It is also obvious that traditional methods of instruction are likely to be received with little enthusiasm by postwar pupils, young and old. The conning of antiquated textbooks will have to go. The emphasis the war is placing on action, on the realities of life, on the future rather than the past, will make our favorite sedentary educational methods wholly unacceptable. Our high schools are slowly breaking away from those methods, but they must be left entirely behind if we are to handle the problems of reconstruction. It is especially desirable that the schools should now develop activities combining productive work and learning.

The widening functions of secondary education will not obviate the need for planning for the postwar education of boys and girls. In particular, two necessary curricular changes are indicated. First, the postwar world will be an international world. Americans have never been exposed to a genuinely international point of view. Our thinking is fettered by the nationalistic bias which has characterized instruction in our schools and colleges. Breaking down this parochial outlook must be part of postwar planning.

Secondly, our schools have always been chary of dealing with the problem of values. But this war is being fought over differences in basic assumptions, and the peace will be made in the same manner. As long as we refrain from making a bold approach with our pupils to the question of what things are of most worth in this world we are excluding our pupils from an experience which is perhaps of all experiences the most important. The war is going to leave all values, even "the American way of life," open to discussion. Both young people and adults must be equipped and disposed to take active parts in the reformulation of personal, social, and political values.

Warren C. Seyfert is a member of the faculty of the Harvard Graduate School of Education. Reported from the Journal of Educational Sociology, *XV (May, 1942), 546-53.*

IF our democracy is to continue to succeed in competition with other forms of social organization it must do three jobs much better than it is doing them now. Thus, after having given every boy and girl through our universal public school system a chance to show by the end of the high-school course what is in him, i.e., what his interests, aptitudes, and abilities are—

1. We must do a vastly better *selecting* job, or *vocational guidance* job than we have done thus far in the endeavor to see that each youth gets into the place in our American life in which he is best qualified to live happily and successfully. This means steering away from our so-called higher school system that very large fraction of the population that is not qualified to succeed in the pursuits to train for which the higher schools exist. In that responsibility we educators have failed badly so far.

2. We must provide, presumably through apprenticeship, techniques so successfully used in Europe, the opportunity for the large fraction of the population which has no chance to succeed in the analytical professions the opportunity to live happily and usefully through its mastery of manual and commercial skills. We have neglected this job.

3. We must through our public school system be the main agency for making not less than 51 percent of the oncoming generation reasonably intelligent voters. Without this result no democratic representative government can possibly endure. This opportunity of the public school system is enormous, the result so far very unimpressive. *—Robert Andrews Millikan, California Institute of Technology.*

MORE ACCEPTABLE FACULTY MEETINGS

ROY E. LEARNED

In Guiding Children in Democratic Living

THESE times have created among our teachers a feeling of being hurried, pressed for time. Part of this feeling is actual, as many teachers are assuming extra responsibilities in their communities in civilian defense work, part is the nervous tension of the times. The wise principal will attempt to recast his administrative plans to help teachers overcome these feelings of tension. Can faculty meetings be made more acceptable to help solve this problem?

Few teachers would recommend the abandonment of faculty meetings, even though the most conscientious often consider them boresome, irritating, and a waste of time. However, unless such staff meetings can be made to appeal to all of the teachers as purposeful and timely, they may become a source of devitalizing tension so great as to nullify much of their potential value.

In the Washington School, several years ago, through a process of cooperative thinking, we undertook the task of revamping our staff meetings so that the most critical might recognize them as pleasant and definitely profitable. Our first decision was to abandon the regularly scheduled, after-school meeting, in favor of a short morning session subject to the call of the principal and beginning promptly at 8:15. It takes selfdiscipline to reach school 15 minutes earlier than usual, particularly on midwinter mornings, yet the teachers still prefer the 8:15 hour. They are fresher, think more clearly, are less inclined to debate, and accomplish more in a half hour in the morning than formerly in a full hour after school. They like the freedom of being able to leave the building at will after school to attend to dental appointments, to go shopping, to attend a good show, or just to relax at home.

We discovered that the shorter meetings were quite adequate because many of the items usually covered in after-school meetings could be handled through other channels. For example, routine announcements are made through an easily prepared bulletin, typed by the office clerk, and run off on the rotary ditto by pupil messengers. These bulletins are placed in the teachers' mail boxes after school so that they may be read early the next morning. On some days the bulletin consists of only an item or two, other times a page is filled, and again there may be no bulletin at all. Often the bulletin contains announcements for the children, and these are always read during the first period when all the pupils are with their homeroom teacher. Only on rare occasions are special bulletins

sent through to interrupt classes during the day.

Our so-called "permanent" bulletin book, composed of a loose-leaf folder, contains 15 to 20 bulletins of reference material. Procedures and policies developed through the cumulative experience of the staff are incorporated in these bulletins. The schedule and principal duties of the yard teachers, the quotas and method of requisitioning supplies, rules governing teacher absence, and similar information of a somewhat constant and routine nature are included. Likewise, copies of the superintendent's most important bulletins with interpretative comments are included in the folder. By having such data close at hand for ready reference, much time is saved in faculty meetings, since oftrepeated reminders can be omitted.

Most principals desire their teachers to have a definite voice in the administration of the school, yet such a procedure presents difficulties. The complete staff of a fairly large elementary school is too numerous to act economically as a deliberative body. A few of the more articulate teachers tend to do all the talking, while the majority will sit in enigmatic silence. There is likely to be too much debate and too little action. Interests are naturally so diverse that it is difficult to choose topics of vital interest to the entire group.

To overcome this difficulty, we have for some time held with marked success small interest group meetings. The science, art, music, or library teachers of the intermediate grades often meet with the principal to discuss their particular problems. Similarly, the primary teachers frequently, as a unit, sit in council with the principal. Other natural groups with interests sufficiently in common to make conferences most profitable are the teachers of slow-reading classes (we segregate our pupils on the basis of reading achievement), yard teachers serving for a given period of time, sponsors of the Junior Red Cross, and many others. These groups all meet at 8:15 and cover briefly, but effectively, certain specific problems requiring attention. The numbers usually range from three to eight teachers, and the matters which they discuss lack sufficient general interest to warrant coming before the whole staff.

We have found another means of reducing the number of general staff meetings, and at the same time maintaining a strictly democratic viewpoint in administration. Questions which pertain to the entire school are first thoroughly studied by a coordinating committee, composed of two primary and two intermediate teachers. As far as possible, the personnel of the committee represents a typical cross-section of the staff. Their ultimate conclusions generally approach closely

what those of the entire staff would be if all the teachers, as a body, were to study the problem at hand. Thus, the committee's reports are usually adopted with but minor changes. The decision of the entire staff has never yet reversed that of the committee entirely. What a saving of faculty meeting time this procedure has proved to be! The members of the committee like the responsibility, and strive to give their very best. The assignment to the committee rotates, so that all members of the staff have their turns. It is a type of representative democracy which meets the universal approval of the teachers.

It would seem that general faculty meetings would have a limited place in such a set-up. We do hold them less frequently, but the main difference is their purpose. They are now called to pass on the recommendations of the coordinating committee, and to study certain pertinent professional problems for which we previously had little time. For example, we discuss the implications of a survey which we have been making in reading capacity as compared with the actual reading achievement of our children. Or, we invite an eye specialist to tell us how to detect vision deficiencies in our pupils by observing certain tell-tale symptoms. Or, we call in our speech correction teacher to see if some of the techniques which she uses to relax children might not be put to general classroom use.

Our experiences have proved to our satisfaction, that the tension of annoyance can be taken out of faculty meetings by calling them at a more desirable time of the day, by diverting announcements through bulletin channels, by arranging more small-group meetings of specialized interest, by utilizing the services of a standing committee to study all-school issues, and by introducing the study of pertinent professional problems. We feel that our experiment has resulted in a wholesome strengthening of staff morale.

Roy E. Learned is Principal of the Washington School, Sacramento, California. Reported from Guiding Children in Democratic Living, *14th Yearbook of the California Elementary Principals' Association, pp. 135-37.*

HOME economics classes in New Jersey are creating and testing recipes using sugar substitutes. Reports go to New Jersey homes through the schools. Schools are developing a broad program to keep New Jersey citizens informed on rationing and consumer problems, lending close cooperation to the state rationing administrator.—*Education for Victory.*

PSYCHOTHERAPY—A MODERN MEDICAL SCIENCE

LEWELLYS F. BARKER

In the American Scholar

FROM very early times attempts have been made to help the ailing through mental treatments, but until recently such treatments were merely empirical. Today, thanks to scientific research carried out in the past two generations, they have a much more rational basis. Curative efforts of this kind lie in the modern scientific field of psychotherapy. Several kinds of treatment are employed.

Suggestion is often consciously applied by the physician, and is often a factor in therapeutic treatment even when not consciously employed. When improvement results from a certain therapeutic measure, it may not be due to direct physical or chemical effects upon the body but to the suggestive influence of the treatment—in which event faith in the therapeutic measure is responsible for the improvement. Some persons are very susceptible to suggestion while others are resistant to it. Suggestions made to a patient in a state of induced somnambulism (hypnotism) are sometimes peculiarly effective. Hypnotism is not resorted to as often today as it once was, but in the hands of a physician skilled in its use it can be a really important practical method of psychotherapy.

Rest and isolation cures (following the methods of Weir Mitchell) are still regarded as having great value for nervous patients who complain of fatigue and exhaustion. The patient remains in bed for several weeks under the care of trained attendants and special attention is paid to his diet. He receives no letters or visits from relatives during the early part of the treatment, though he is assured that he will be informed of any emergency in the family. "Isolation" of the patient helps to enforce repose of both body and mind. When rest and good diet are supplemented by massage, encouragement, and building up of the body, symptoms diminish and may wholly disappear. During convalescence the physician re-educates the patient to lead a more nearly normal life and clues are sought to family and social conflicts and attempts are made to resolve them.

Psychotherapy by *mental liquidation* or *catharsis* (especially by *psychoanalysis*) has attained considerable vogue under the influence of Sigmund Freud. Freud believed that the symptoms of many patients are dependent on mental conflicts they cannot themselves resolve—conflicts of which they are often unaware. To uncover them Freud used the method of "free association," the patient in regular interviews stating whatever came into his mind, whether it seemed to be sense or

nonsense and whether it was "conventional" or "objectionable." Through such conversations the psychoanalyst gained clues to the deeper content of the patient's psychic life; hidden emotional conflicts were gradually revealed and could then be explained to the patient.

Freud himself laid great stress on emotional life in infancy and thought that infantile sexual experiences, including overdevotion to the parent of opposite sex (Oedipus complex) were of great importance; he believed that many nervous symptoms were unconscious derivatives from such infantile sexuality. The dreams of the patient were also studied for clues to earlier experiences that had been repressed, the content of dreams being regarded as symbolic of the patient's repressed desires. The capricious interpretation of such symbols by some psychoanalysts has been much criticized, but the abler psychoanalysts in this country have done much to purge psychoanalytic theory of many of its earlier extravagances.

In addition to Freud's "orthodox" psychoanalysis, similar methods have been employed by other analytical psychologists. Special mention may be made of Janet's method of "psychological analysis," Adler's method of "individual psychology" which laid emphasis on the "will-to-power" and the "inferiority complex," and Jung's "analytical psychology" with its division of human types into "extroverts" and "introverts."

Adolph Meyer and his school tried to correct personality difficulties on a psychobiological basis. The various factors concerned in the origin of the patient's symptoms were analyzed and efforts made to achieve a satisfactory integration of the whole personality. In the study and treatment all methods that could be helpful were used. "Deep" psychological analysis was found to be necessary in only a small proportion of the cases.

Education, excitation, guidance, and *work programs* are all useful forms of psychotherapy. New kinds of helpful activity may be learned; powers that have been lost may be regained; selfconfidence may be increased; and ability to deal with difficulties enhanced. Medicine is greatly indebted to psychoanalysis, especially for its emphasis upon the whole life history of the human personality. It has been valuable both as an instrument of research and as a therapeutic method.

Psychotherapy's major field has been that of the functional nervous disorders — neurasthenia, hysteria, anxiety neurosis, etc.—but it may also be helpful in the treatment of so-called organic diseases. Coronary sclerosis with angina pectoris, and pulmonary tuberculosis are examples in which psychotherapy is valuable.

The problems of the psychotherapist vary with patients of different

ages. In childhood there are unusual opportunities for the practice of "mental hygiene," and intelligent parents should be classed among our more important psychotherapists. Such habits as thumb-sucking, nail-biting, stuttering, tics, sleepwalking, bed-wetting, temper tantrums, and jealousy reactions should be approached as problems to be solved rather than as habits to be broken by disciplinary measures.

During adolescence, dependence on the family should be diminished so that when adulthood is reached the world may be faced in an independent manner. Parental authority should be gradually relaxed to give children an opportunity steadily to develop their powers of selfdirection and become more selfconfident.

During early adulthood, problems may arise owing to maladaption to marriage, while spinsterhood and bachelorhood have problems of their own. The problems connected with the sex life of adults are manifold. Homosexuality is far more common than many people realize. Such sexual abnormalities as sadistic and masochistic impulses may test the powers of treatment of the most skillful psychotherapist.

The psychic problems of old age are quite different from those of earlier life. After 60 the demands made on the mind and body should be gradually diminished, although a sudden and marked reduction of activities is likely to be harmful and should be avoided. The time for retirement should be an individual matter; some men are more capable at 75 than others are at 60. As business or professional activities are relinquished more time may be devoted to hobbies and other interests as substitutes. Older women are fortunate when they have young grandchildren to enjoy. Older men will often do well to write autobiographies, even if they are not to be published. The wise old person will wish to live as long as he can be useful in the world, but will prefer not to linger in a state of physical or intellectual decay; he should know that in any case death cannot be far away and that this fact should be accepted without fear.

Lewellys F. Barker is Clinical Professor Emeritus of Medicine at the Johns Hopkins University. Reported from the American Scholar, *XI (Spring, 1942), 201-7.*

THE school population, ages 5 to 17, both inclusive, has almost doubled since 1880. The census estimate for July 1, 1940, based on the census of April 1, 1940, was 29,805,259. Comparing 1930 with 1940 we have a decrease of 1,766,063 or 5.6 percent for the 10-year period.—*Office of Education.*

THINK AND TYPE

FRANCES E. MERRILL

In the Business Education World

THE teaching of transcription should begin long before the student tries to translate his shorthand notes into readable typescript. Habits of concentration and thinking at the typewriter must be developed before any attempt is made to transcribe from shorthand notes. We have done a pretty good job of training straight-copy typists—but how many straight-copy typists are needed in the modern business world? Not as many as we have trained! How many of these straight-copy typists can write a letter on the typewriter without first writing it out in longhand? Far too few.

The necessity of training students to compose at the typewriter has been stressed in connection with personal-use typing. But we have overlooked the fact that the ability to compose with the typewriter is a prerequisite for transcription training and therefore essential for the stenographic student.

It is fairly easy to train straight-copy typists. There are many well-planned textbooks; it is easy to set up standards of speed and accuracy, and to measure progress. Composition, on the other hand, is harder to measure, and teaching it requires techniques that lie outside the typing text.

Many of the habits acquired by the straight-copy typists are a distinct handicap in transcription. Speed typing from straight copy is automatic and requires no thinking of the content being typed. Yet this very ability to type rapidly without thinking of the content is undoubtedly a serious hindrance in learning to transcribe, for the stenographer cannot transcribe shorthand notes accurately without thinking of meaning. The choice among *to, too,* and *two* is not made automatically; it is made by deciding which one makes sense.

Transcription has too often been considered simply a combination of two separate skills—typing and shorthand. Actually, transcription is a third skill, though dependent on these two. Ability to think while typing is fundamental for the stenographer. The shorthand symbols must be translated by the brain into *meaningful thought,* which stimulates the fingers to reproduce this thought with the typewriter.

In the past we have developed two separate skills and then trusted to luck that the student would bridge the gap, but we have done little to show him how to build that bridge. That bridge is composition at the typewriter.

There are three main steps in teaching students to think at the typewriter:

1. *Dictation direct to the typewriter.*—This type of drill can be started the first week. The words should be similar to develop reach habits, but a letter or two should be changed in each word so that the student must from the beginning get the habit of thinking about what he is doing. The following are examples:

as has is his him it hit at hat
that than this they them than
then we were will with which
when where

Ask the students to write each word dictated as quickly as possible, space after the word, and then pause. When a lull indicates that practically everyone in the class has finished a word, give the next one.

In phrase building, begin with very simple phrases and gradually increase their complexity, as below:

he is is he I am you are
are you he will she will
will you I will be he will
have will you be able
I have been able were you
able.

Dictate a great variety of short sentences, which may also be used for repetitive drill.

In paragraph dictation, dictate paragraphs from the typing text which can be checked by the pupil for the accuracy of the transcription. It is well to give a vocabulary preview or spelling drill of words that might give difficulty. In dictating, begin with very short phrases or word groups and gradually increase the number of words dictated between pauses.

2. *Paraphrasing material read by the teacher.*—Read a paragraph to the class—read it through twice at first—and then ask the pupils to type their ideas on the subject in three to five minutes. This composition will be short and can easily be checked to see whether the student is expressing himself coherently.

3. *Composing answers to questions or letters.*—This is the most advanced stage and should not be attempted until the pupil can type 40-50 words a minute from copy. Short quizzes may be given about office-practice material. Students may be asked how to perform certain operations, and as a final step asked to compose an answer to a dictated letter.

The time for answering must be so limited that there will be no time for preparing notes and copying them. Technical errors of composition should be overlooked at the beginning in order to develop self-confidence. Erasing errors and correcting them should certainly be encouraged in all composition.

Frances E. Merrill teaches in East High School, Des Moines, Iowa. Reported from the Business Education World, *XXII (June, 1942), 874-76.*

CINCINNATI ADJUSTS TO THE AIR AGE

CLAUDE V. COURTER

In the School Executive

WITHIN a single generation, we have become an air-minded world. The airplane has already revolutionized warfare, and following the war the airplane is certain to have additional far-reaching influences on our industrial and social order and on our ways of living. It can carry freight and passengers swiftly, safely, and economically. It knows no barriers, no boundaries—with the airplane and the radio, the world becomes one community. Anything which so vitally affects our ways of living naturally brings about important changes in the schools in all areas of the curriculum.

Our teaching of *geography* will be greatly affected. The flat maps we have been using have given us some queer conceptions. We have, somewhat theoretically, taught that the world is "round"; now we need to see that it is a sphere and cannot be treated as if it were a cylinder.

In *mathematics,* problems should be used which involve flying and charting courses; in the *language arts,* reading material should be selected to reveal the possibilities of this closely-knit world; in *science,* practical application and demonstration should be made of the laws of flight; and in the *social studies,* the implications of our being brought closer together by the airplane and radio should be emphasized.

But we need not only make our pupils air-minded; it is of greatest importance that we make large numbers of them air-competent. The number of flyers needed to win the war is so great, and the age at which they can best meet the severe physical demands is so young, that responsibility falls directly on the high schools. This was made emphatic by the recent decision of both Army and Navy to drop the requirement of two years of college preparation for aviation-cadet training and to lower the minimum age for enlistment in the flying service from 19 to 18 years. Naturally, boys who have learned in high school the phases of science and mathematics which are basic to actual flight and navigation will be able to complete the Army-Navy training much more easily and will make better fliers than those who have not had this fundamental preliminary instruction.

The content of the ground-school work is about equally divided between physics and mathematics, and there is enough material in each area to constitute a solid, substantial one-unit course. There is no need to set up aviation as a separate subject in the curriculum.

Cincinnati's program to meet the needs of an air-minded world is threefold:

1. *General Education.*—All areas of the curriculum on all grade levels take due account of aviation.

2. *Basic Pre-Flight Training.*—To help meet the great need for trained young pilots, two new units have been introduced into our senior high schools: in the field of mathematics, navigation; in the field of physics, aeronautics.

In fulfilling high-school graduation requirements, navigation is to be counted towards a major in mathematics and aeronautics towards a major in science. These courses are open to any eleventh- or twelfth-grade pupil with some ability in mathematics and science. They may be taken during the same year, or one in the eleventh grade and the other in the twelfth, or one in summer school and one during the regular school year. It is desirable, however, that pupils taking either one of these courses also take the other one as part of their high-school work.

A good background of practical mathematics is necessary for both navigation and aeronautics, and algebra and plane geometry are prerequisites for such courses. Pupils whose work in mathematics indicates that they cannot continue the study with profit are not admitted.

The *course in navigation* will cover certain parts of solid geometry and trigonometry applicable to navigation (i. e., the practical mathematics of navigation) and some descriptive astronomy. Another part of the course will deal with maps and map making, map reading, and map correction. We shall also give instruction in the four methods of aerial navigation which are used separately and in combination: piloting (flying by landmarks on maps); radio flying (the use of radio and radio beams); dead reckoning (by mathematical calculation); and celestial navigation (the use of heavenly bodies to determine location and course).

The *course in aeronautics* will cover the physics of flight in all its practical phases, and meteorology. It will include the laws of motion; hydraulics; forces acting on an airplane in flight; lift, drag, thrust, gravity, balance, stability; aircraft control in flight; flying instruments; and aircraft nomenclature. Emphasis will be placed on practical applications of principles, types, and purposes of planes, plane design, and relation of design to function.

3. *Training for Technicians.*—In addition to the pre-flight training in our regular senior high schools, we are continuing the program of the aviation division of our Automotive High School, where 600 boys are preparing for technical pursuits in the aviation industry.

[*Claude V. Courter is Superintendent of the Cincinnati, Ohio, Schools. Reported from the* School Executive, *LXI (July, 1942), 20-21.*]

DO WE WANT MILITARY TRAINING IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS?

FRANK E. KARELSEN, JR.

In Frontiers of Democracy

BILLS calling for military training of boys at the high-school age level have been introduced in New York and Pennsylvania. The indications are that if this were not an off-year for legislative sessions similar bills would have been introduced in many states, and we may expect a flood of such legislation later this year or next year. Unless the public and the legislators have a true understanding of the waste and inefficacy of such legislation from a military, educational, and physical training standpoint these bills will stand a good chance of being enacted into law.

Whether or not "military training" should be made compulsory or credit given for it, as provided in the bills mentioned above, depends on its usefulness and value to the country and the student. If it is determined that there are affirmative values in such training, then these should be weighed against the requirements of such training in time and money. Such expenditures, at this time, must be made in the most efficient manner to bring about the result to be accomplished; in this case, preparing youth for war.

The War and Navy Departments are best qualified to decide the value of such military training for future soldiers and sailors.

Under-Secretary of War Patterson in a letter to the writer dated February 11, 1942, said: " . . . The urgent requirement of all materiel and personnel for our expanding field forces precludes the approval of new ROTC units by the War Department, except to meet specific needs. The Department has therefore opposed recent efforts to expand military training under its supervision in high schools. The personnel and materiel available for training purposes must be used in training centers . . . which have been established to meet the immediate and pressing needs of our expansion. It is believed that the schools can best serve the common good now by maintaining high standards of mental instruction, improving the physical condition of scholars, establishing and implementing practices and methods designed to develop the qualities of leadership. . . ."

The question has been considered officially by the Army itself. The Adjutant General, Major General E. S. Adams, in a letter to the writer dated February 5, 1942, states: "While pre-induction age training is of value, neither military personnel nor materiel are presently available to supervise or operate such activities. It is believed that such training directed by inexperienced

and unsupervised instructors might be harmful."

And on January 26, 1942, James Forrestal, Under-Secretary of the Navy, wrote the author as follows:

"The Navy Department does not sponsor naval training on purely military lines in high schools because any training given would have to be repeated in the naval training stations for recruits . . . and training in secondary schools would cause a duplication.

"However, there is certain definite scholastic training which all secondary schools can and should do to further prepare boys for Navy specialized training later on."

It is interesting to note that the Navy's opposition to military training in high schools rests on much broader grounds than "no proper personnel available."

It is evident that both the Army and the Navy reject the argument that military training in the high schools would better fit youth for the armed forces. This professional judgment should prevail against the opinions of patriotic citizens.

The second argument put forth in favor of military training is that it has physical education value. It is the almost universal opinion of experts that close-order drill, manual of arms, and military training contribute little or nothing to the development of physical fitness. Lieutenant Colonel Herman J. Koehler, founder of the West Point system of physical training, has expressed this opinion: "The use of drill as a means of physical development to anyone, be he man or boy, is worse than useless. Advocates of military drill make far-reaching claims for this so-called method of physical training. It is not my purpose to deny that much can be claimed for it; but I absolutely deny that this drill contains one worthy feature which cannot be duplicated—aye and discounted—in every well-regulated gymnasium in the country."

Can "military training" be justified, as some of its proponents seek to do, on the ground of awakening students to the importance of the war or of bringing home to them that this is a people's war? This was the main argument of a representative of the Communist party at a recent hearing before a committee of the New York Legislature. Such an admission would indeed be an acknowledgment of the complete inefficacy of our educational system.

Quotation has already been made from the letter of Mr. Patterson in which he stresses that the schools can best serve the nation by "maintaining high standards of mental instruction," etc. The Navy Department in a recent circular to educational institutions even more emphatically points out that the basic training of young men is "absolutely essential to the Navy" and asks the high schools to install certain specific subjects which will be

of help in preparing students for naval careers. In addition to teaching more mathematics, the Navy would like the schools to offer courses in radio and telephone communications, shop and foundry work, internal combustion engines, and elementary navigation.

It is apparent that there are many things the schools can do to further the war effort. However, unquestioning response to every pressure will be destructive of education and efficient war service. The high school, knowing the war need, must take into consideration both the maturity and the aptitude of the student. It can then determine the real value of the activity. Military training would be eliminated.

The draft rejection statistics have made it clear that there should be added emphasis on physical fitness in the schools. Any added expenditure of time, effort, and funds for this purpose is capable of producing important and desirable results.

There is no desire for the schools to go along unchanged and oblivious to the war effort. However, on the basis of the opinions of those who should know — the military people who know war needs and the educators who know youth— and in view of the other more effective war activities which the schools can carry on, military training does not recommend itself as a desirable high-school activity. It is an adult experience which does not bring to high-school boys either the increased morale, the technical knowledge, or the physical fitness intended.

It is only very recently that the Army and Navy have expressed their disapproval of the pending legislation, and it is only fair to assume that many patriotic citizens who supported these bills did not know of the stand taken by the armed forces. After having all the facts placed before them, the Board of Education and the Board of Superintendents of New York City and the State Department of Education of New York opposed them.

Frank E. Karelsen, Jr. is Chairman of the Legislative Committee of the Public Education Association and Vice-President of the Child Study Association of America. Reported from Frontiers of Democracy, *VIII (April 15, 1942), 200-2.*

THE average salary of teachers, supervisors, and principals for the entire country is $1441, an increase of $21 over the previous high mark of $1420 in 1930 and an increase of $67 over the previous year's report, according to statistics compiled by the U. S. Office of Education.

CAN THE GYM BE MADE SAFER?

ARTHUR H. DESGREY

In the Journal of Health and Physical Education

ANY school with an organized program of physical education will find a very large percentage of school accidents occurring in this area. We have assumed in the past that accidents "just happen," or that they are inherent in physical education activities. Now we realize that accidents have definite causes—if we can but find them.

An accurate and complete accident reporting system in which a written report of every accident is filed, will serve as a basis for determining causes. Frequent analysis of such reports will disclose an institution's accident peculiarities. In addition, it will indicate the extent to which unnecessary accidents are occurring.

In Frank Lloyd's study, 510 schools reported 2,370 accidents for the school year 1931-32. Analysis grouped them under the following headings: accidents caused by (1) inadequate equipment; (2) inadequate leadership; (3) the nature of the activity. The opinions of a large number of teachers concerning the causes of accidents in physical education activities indicate an awareness of the hazards present in their teaching situation. The teachers listed the following equipment hazards: slippery shower and gymnasium floors, wall obstructions, obstruction of playing space, equipment in poor repair, equipment improperly set up, swinging doors, steps, and stairs.

Slippery surfaces appear to be a paramount hazard. The large number of accidents occurring in ball games can be partially attributed to the nature of the activity, but many accidents occur because of overcrowding and playing several ball games simultaneously in a restricted area. Most organized group activities require a great deal of space, and if this is not provided accidents are bound to occur. People will run into each other and be struck by play equipment.

Among the equipment factors pointing toward safety are the following:

1. Clear playing space unobstructed by pillars or low overhanging fixtures.

2. Objects projecting from walls up to a height of eight feet should be reduced to a minimum. Drinking fountains and radiators should be recessed and screened, and windows screened.

3. The lines of basketball courts must be well in from the walls.

4. The floor must be resilient and of such a nature as to reduce slipping to a minimum.

5. The floor should be cleared as soon as an activity is finished, both to prevent tripping accidents and

because apparatus left on the floor invites promiscuous experimentation, often resulting in accidents.

6. If there are bleachers along the sidelines, they should be far enough back to prevent players from running into them.

7. Swinging doors should not be used in gymnasiums. Doors should open outward to prevent players running into them.

8. Sufficient space must be allowed for peak loads, which must be thought of in terms of the available space and supervision.

9. To insure adequate supervision, the director's office should have a clear view of the whole area.

• Periodic checks of equipment are essential. Regular weekly inspection should include heavy apparatus; ceiling apparatus; floor surfaces; screening on windows, radiators, and lights; mats; permanent equipment—stall bars, ladders, ropes, etc.; locker- and shower-rooms. Apparatus needed for the day's instruction and games should always be inspected before use.

The proper placement of equipment is particularly necessary in the gymnasium. All unnecessary objects should be removed from the floor. Mats should be properly placed for apparatus work; all apparatus should be tested by the instructor before it is used by the student.

Accidents due to inadequate leadership come under the following heads: (1) overcrowding floor space; (2) overcrowding equipment; (3) equipment inadequately erected; (4) carelessness of students.

Overcrowding is indicated to be an outstanding cause of accidents. Careful planning of available space and equipment is essential. Class schedules and peak loads should be controlled in terms of the space and leadership available. Following are some of the major leadership controls: (1) adequate officiating; (2) adequate supervision of activities, particularly during crowded periods and before and after classes; (3) proper training of student leaders; (4) give progressive conditioning in all activities; (5) adapt activities to the space and equipment available; (6) give specific safety instruction to leaders and students; (7) first aid must be rendered immediately, and should not be entrusted to students; it is desirable to have medical service available for all types of activities.

Teachers must be safety conscious and trained to recognize hazards. They must know how to prevent them where possible, and what to do when an injury occurs.

Among the student controls are the following:

1. A physical examination for every student, which should be repeated, when possible, during the year.

2. The fitness of a student for interschool competition should be made on expert judgment; reliance

on the written permission of parents is undesirable.

3. Grade is a good procedure for assignment of student to physical education classes, but classes should be divided into squads on the basis of standard physical ability tests.

Lloyd's study indicates that the most hazardous gymnasium activities are heavy apparatus, wrestling, and tumbling. These activities are also foremost in the seriousness of injuries. The above activities should be more carefully supervised and the selection of students more carefully checked.

Much safety instruction can be integrated with the activity program. If each opportunity is realized, many of the following attitudes and practices will result:

1. An understanding of the fun, dangers, and safe practices in sports and of the necessity for strict supervision.

2. A realization of the dangers of overexertion when not in condition.

3. An aversion to causing injury to an opponent in competitive sports. A clean game is a safe game.

4. Understanding of the hazards peculiar to certain organized sports.

5. An attitude of cooperation with teachers to prevent horseplay.

6. Skill in using apparatus presenting hazards.

7. A knowledge of simple first aid and the proper method of reporting accidents to the authorities.

8. Understanding the futility of taking foolish chances.

9. Proper knowledge of obstructions in gymnasium.

An institution promoting a program in which hazards are inherent must face the responsibility when accidents occur. But many of the hazards in physical education activities are unnecessary and are an indictment of the organization and leadership promoting these activities. Their elimination will promote the enjoyment of activities and make the gymnasium a safer place.

Arthur H. Desgrey is a member of the faculty of the College of the City of New York. Reported from the Journal of Health and Physical Education, *XIII (May, 1942), 301-3, 317.*

MORE than 200,000 of the 440,000 pupils in the New York City high schools have taken the 16-week course in first aid offered by volunteer teachers trained by the American Red Cross. Charles Degen, Assistant Director of Health Education for New York City, reports that first aid is now included in hygiene programs in 60 percent of the city's high schools.

SOCIAL PROBLEMS—AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL FALLACY?

JOHN H. MARTIN AND O. J. LUPONE

In the Elementary School Journal

MANY educators have advocated that curriculum materials drawn from the controversial problems of adult life be used in the elementary school. "Housing and Slums," "Machines," and "Conservation" are examples of unit titles.

On the other hand, child psychologists have often criticized the teaching of such abstract and remote topics to elementary-school children. Students of child development have found that "emphasis in the social studies sometimes seems to consist in passing on to fledgling children social and economic problems which adults themselves have difficulty in formulating, let alone solving." The only concession made by the author quoted toward including curriculum content of social significance is that "it would be better to approach a topic by way of conditions known to the child in his own experience, rather than by way of abstract and remote terms or propositions." Advocates of the teaching of social problems have frantically snatched at this suggestion, and perverted it. They have done this by recommending the study of social issues in each local community. They naively assume that because material was geographically close, it was also "close" to the experience of the child.

The writers arrived at the foregoing conclusion as the result of their efforts to teach a unit dealing with local manifestations of the national problem of conservation. The unit was cooperatively developed by a group of teachers. We assumed that by dealing with local issues we should overcome the objection that national problems are too remote from the everyday experience of children.

Among the specific local resources in which the idea of conservation could play a part were a harbor, a sand and gravel pit, potato farming, and the water supply. After a brief discussion of what conservation means, the pupils—sixth graders—asked: "How are local resources being used?" They decided to find out, to their own satisfaction, whether these resources were being used wisely. On the basis of interest the children formed into groups to study various phases of the problem. They gathered a great deal of information.

The following devices were used in evaluating the unit: each pupil kept a diary, a day-to-day record of his work and his attitude toward it; anecdotes were kept by the teacher of significant pupil behavior; tests; and observation of the class by the supervisor.

We found that the children responded in a very selfcentered manner. When one pupil pointed out that the gravel pit—located in a residential area—was ugly, another replied: "Who cares? It's not near my house." When another child pointed out that his father worked in the gravel pit, the class agreed that the pit was a good thing. When a child who lived near the pit repeated his parent's objections to the pit's effect on property values, the class decided that this argument concerned adults only. When the pupils took sides, their conclusions were likely to be based on the popularity of the debaters, and not on the evidence given.

We discovered that children had no interest in problems with which they were not immediately concerned. A child whose father owned farming land was interested in erosion, and methods of plowing that might cause it. The child of a neighbor whose property suffered from this practice could recognize that a quarrel existed between his father and his classmate's father, but neither child could understand that the community might be concerned, even though the situation was a common one in that area. The class as a whole saw no need to be troubled with an issue which, in their thinking, did not involve them.

This lack of interest was not due to mental incapacity but rather to failure to understand that an issue existed. The abstract principle, the general welfare, was unknown to them and they could not identify themselves with it. They could understand the interests of a particular playfellow but not those of the general public. Hence they could not feel themselves a part of a group of which they had no recognition. In one instance, however, they were able to recognize their interest.

When the harbor was discussed it was found that swimming there was dangerous because of the pollution caused by yachts. Here was a condition from which they all suffered. Their interest was immediately aroused to the point where they were anxious to determine what could be done. Further investigation revealed that local merchants were dependent for a large share of their business on the trade brought in by the yachts. The issue was immediately joined: if the yachts came into the harbor the children could not swim there. Here was a problem with which all were concerned; it was within their experience. Here was a clue which revealed the basic reason for the failure of other topics to be understood as community problems; for here was an issue which was not only geographically close but psychologically significant.

A committee appointed to investigate this problem came back with two questions: "Can the yachts use the harbor without polluting it?" "Are there other swimming places

easily available?" With the discussion so pointed, the children continued with:

"The yachts can't go some other place to dock."

"If they go some other place our storekeepers will lose most of their business."

"We can swim anywhere along the shore."

The children reached the conclusion that they could, at a little inconvenience, continue to satisfy their wants. Their recognition of this altruistic solution indicated their understanding of the larger interests of the community. In no other instance did they achieve even this small degree of understanding of the fact that the interests of conflicting groups must give way to the community good.

These findings suggest that curriculum makers should be judicious in selecting adult problems to be presented to elementary school children. A topic which is close to home is more likely to be successfully taught than a subject which is distant. But all subjects drawn from the immediate vicinity of the school are not significant to the child.

John H. Martin and O. J. LuPone are supervisors in the public schools of Northport, New York. Reported from the Elementary School Journal, *XLII (May, 1942), 664-68.*

A COUNT completed for the American Library Association discloses that there are more than 35 million people in the United States without any free public library service:

	1941	Percent	1938	Percent
Without service	35,447,515	27	42,178,811	34
With service	96,221,760	73	80,596,235	66

Rural people constitute 92 percent of the 35 million people without library service. Moreover, these handicapped rural people form 57 percent of the entire rural population:

	1941	Percent	1938	Percent
Rural without	32,569,745	92	38,744,907	92
Urban without	2,877,770	8	3,433,904	8

Out of some 3000-odd counties, there are still 632 without a single public library as compared with 897 in 1938. There are four cities over 25,000 which lack public library facilities. Library extension is primarily a rural need. In eight states, more than 50 percent of the people have no public library service.

LET'S STUDY THE HISTORY OF MUDVILLE

EDWARD P. ALEXANDER

In Social Education

ONLY a visitor from a foreign land would find Mudville's appearance unusual. The chain groceries, dime-stores, and gas stations may be seen anywhere in America, as may the handsome schoolhouse, the churches with their adapted Gothic lines, the homes ranging from "colonial" to "modern," the stop-and-go lights, and the neon signs advertising Ye Tastee Toastee Shoppe. Mudville does not differ markedly in externals from Albany, Ga., or Brattleboro, Vt.; from Huron, S. D., or Petaluma, Calif.

In the good old days when history was defined as past politics, nearly everyone was agreed that Mudville's past had neither interest nor importance. To be sure, the local historian existed, but he was regarded by the man in the street as being a little cracked. And he had not achieved much higher standing in the opinion of the professors of history. As Dixon Ryan Fox so well put it, this "poor relation of the mighty scholars who chronicle the deeds of parliaments and armies," has been generally dismissed as "an antiquarian, uncritical and queer . . . who painfully works out a futile record of the insignificant."

But as the study of economic, social, and cultural history has come to take its rightful place in the profession, the importance of local history has been recognized. Mudville's past has become of value since history is at last interested in knowing about the experience of the ordinary man and woman, their everyday life, and the development of their economic institutions. How did economic depressions from 1837 to 1937 affect Mudville? What sort of poor-relief policies did the town develop? Where did Mudville's early settlers come from? What sort of houses did they build? What kind of pictures, music, and literature did they enjoy?

The answers to such questions have much more than local significance. Jacob Schafer's dream of a Domesday Book for Wisconsin recognized that "the opening of every new farm in the American wilderness was an original creative process significant enough to deserve a line in the general record of civilization." This same microscopic approach must be applied to the development of the metropolitan community at a thousand points before we can hope to have a scientific and useful history.

The study of Mudville's history is also good for Mudville. No one wants to do away with Mudville's traffic lights or sewage-disposal plant, but we do want to keep Mudville from an excess of uniformity. The way to find out what distinguishes

Mudville from other places is to study its past. That is how a community's distinctive personality may be discovered and understood. When familiar places and institutions take on new color, the town's citizens will live with more zest and also with more contentment.

The meaning of American democracy can perhaps best be studied through the locality. And Mudville's history is usable as a means of teaching American history in the schools. Mudville teachers can make the record of national happenings understandable, and at times even fascinating, by approaching them through Mudville's past. It would be sad to study the era of railroad building without knowing that Mudville acquired a long-term municipal debt by helping finance its railroad, and that a locomotive named "The Pride of Mudville," while traveling 15 miles an hour, was derailed by an ox. It would be criminal neglect to treat of the Mormons without realizing that one of Brigham Young's wives was a Mudville girl.

If there can be little doubt of the value of studying Mudville's history, the next question is: How can we do it? The answer is—form a Mudville historical society. The suggestion may bring some pretty grim memories of long, boring papers interested chiefly in propping up family trees. Or the more scholarly may shudder as they think of the publications of some of the societies, both as to content and as to format.

Yet Mudville should have a historical society. The more one visits the historical societies of this country, the more one is amazed at the excellent job of collecting they have done. No matter how much they have gone in for collecting bricks from Mt. Vernon and gavels made from the wood of the U.S.S. "Constitution," still they have done wonderful work in gathering and preserving the books, newspapers, maps, manuscripts, playbills, and posters illustrating the history of their community. The local historical society is still the best instrument yet devised to preserve and popularize the history of Mudville.

First of all, let us see how the Mudville historical society will probably develop. As soon as a constitution has been adopted, officers elected, and dues paid, the organization will embark on a series of meetings at which papers will be read and addresses delivered. These may be printed, at first in the local papers, but soon someone will suggest issuing them as a publication of the society. If the money can be found, this will be done. Meanwhile, books, newspapers, manuscripts, and museum objects will be coming in as gifts and loans. At first they may be housed in a private home, the local library, or the courthouse. But almost inevitably the society will acquire a home of

its own. The library and museum can then begin to function more actively.

This rapid recital does not emphasize the problems which will develop at every stage of growth. Whether the society is successful or not will probably depend on whether the right kind of union can be developed between enthusiastic amateurs and certain skilled professionals. Who is going to plan the meetings, see that refreshments are supplied occasionally, put on a campaign for new members, or organize a pilgrimage to the site of Mudville's Indian skirmish? The trained historian? We doubt it. The amateurs, many of them women, are likely to do this work. We hope for the society's sake that some of Mudville's business men will serve on the board of trustees, and we hope too that such a specialist as the newspaper editor will handle the public relations.

But there are at least three activities which cannot be satisfactorily directed by the enthusiastic amateur. One of these is publication—which includes obtaining and editing material. Another is outlining a rational accession policy for both library and museum, limiting the collections of the society to certain well-defined fields, and using every means to obtain materials in these fields. Still another question is raised by the museum. To be of real value it must present its offerings dramatically and coordinate its activities with the schools.

The professional historian can be of great value in solving these problems. The historian will know, too, how advice can be obtained from national, state, and regional historical organizations and from various branches of the WPA and NYA.

It is important, then, that Mudville's historical society use both amateur enthusiasm and professional skills. If the society becomes "high hat" and makes the untrained local historians feel out of place, it loses much. There is a great and relatively untapped force of historical interest in this country today. Its potential strength may be estimated by counting the county histories of a certain type—sometimes called "mug books" because they contain pictures of the backers—which are issued each year, and how many historical novels are read. Unfortunately, in the past the trained historian has often neglected the popular interest in history, when it ought to be catered to and given wise guidance. More than ever today there is need for saying: Let's study the history of Mudville.

Edward P. Alexander is Superintendent of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin. Reported from Social Education, *VI (May, 1942), 209-12.*

A WORKSHOP PROPOSAL AT THE COLLEGE LEVEL

Louis M. Heil

In the Educational Record

EDUCATIONAL processes in most colleges are highly departmentalized. The rapid increase in the size of colleges and universities has encouraged specialization and also favored the development of fixed methods for imparting information on a mass scale. Students are herded through schedules devised by efficient scheduling officers. They serve for a fixed period of time, pass certain examinations—which in the main represent a handing back of the information imparted through lectures and readings—and finally are stamped with the institutional seal of approval, the bachelor's degree.

In most colleges, students participate little if at all in the solution of problems. The courses are planned by the instructor, together with the method of study within the course, and often the actual conclusions to be drawn by the student are clearly indicated. The student does not have to develop hypotheses and the ways and means of checking them. He does not have to consider the relative validity and reliability of the sources of information he uses in his study. He has little or no opportunity to participate in the give-and-take of discussion with others which is essential to the solution of problems.

Thus, while the student acquires a college education through methods which are efficient and economical from the viewpoint of the college, such methods are likely to be artificial and temporary for the student. In later years he will seldom attend classes, listen to lectures, or study from books. He will have to meet and solve his problems by quite different methods.

For the most part, the academic atmosphere is an artificial one, removed from the world of reality represented by industry, agriculture, slums, crime, and poverty. Practically the only opportunity which the students have for the analysis and discussion of contemporary problems is through extracurricular activities and the "bull session."

Colleges can unify their students and faculties and give both a real sense of participation in the problems of our civilization through workshops dealing with topics of contemporary importance and interest. In such a program the instructor would lead the students by stimulating and directing the discussion without lecturing. He would also constitute a resource from which students could draw pertinent facts and principles.

Specifically, the proposal implies that students and faculty of a college would, during a semester, study two or three problems of impor-

tance. A central committee could state the problems and provide study materials.

The problems should be selected on the basis of certain criteria. They should be problems of general importance and universal interest. They should encourage lively discussion and definite courses of action in which all students could participate. They should be such that factual data is available for their study; problems in which discussion is likely to lead to mere exchange of opinion should be avoided. Finally, each major problem should consist of a range of minor problems which cut across the subject-matter divisions of the college curriculum.

For example, the major topic "College students and the war" would include such minor problems as:

1. How will the war affect college students?
2. In what ways is college training useful in military service? in the production of war materials?
3. How can the student who is pursuing a science course be most useful when he is called for military service or in other phases of national defense?
4. If called for military service, what steps can he take to insure that his services will be used to maximum advantage?
5. Is a student justified in leaving college to make high wages in war industry?

The general problem to be studied could be introduced at a general meeting of students and faculty, through a lecture, panel discussion, debate, or other suitable means. The student body would then divide into working subgroups of not more than 20 each, and preferably including as wide a representation as possible of different sexes, classes, fields of study, and social groups. They would meet with an instructor two or three times a week, preferably in a faculty home or other informal setting in order to avoid the student-teacher relationship suggested by the formal classroom.

The instructor would stimulate discussion and try to maintain a systematic approach to the problem. He would deal with the aspects of the general problem in which he was most competent. It would be expected that each student group would rotate, after several weeks, to a different phase of the major problem under the leadership of a different instructor.

After discussion, each subgroup should try to formulate some program of action. This action might be individual, group, or on a college-wide basis.

Defining the problem, locating and gathering data, presenting ideas and having them accepted or rejected after vigorous debate, applying principles from various courses, planning a program, and finally attempting to translate that program

into action—these things represent the kind of education every student needs and can utilize in his post-college life.

A program of this sort might be considered extra-curricular, or credit might be given for it, depending on the importance attached to it.

Louis M. Heil is Associate Professor of Education at the University of Chicago. Reported from the Educational Record, *XXIII (April, 1942), 261-70.*

THE 1940 census figures yield some highly interesting light on the educational attainments of the population. In the following tabulation the first column gives the total number of persons 25 years or older while the second lists the number of these persons who have completed four years or less of schooling.

U. S.	74,775,836	10,104,612	Montana	315,147	23,470
Alabama	1,354,736	390,913	Nebraska	751,863	44,964
Arizona	253,122	49,062	Nevada	67,468	5,927
Arkansas	968,286	223,860	N. H.	293,759	23,783
California	4,420,555	358,349	N. J.	2,533,379	304,305
Colorado	637,936	57,206	N. Mexico	247,295	67,481
Conn.	1,031,493	115,839	New York	8,430,789	1,020,197
Delaware	158,428	20,437	N. C.	1,649,820	433,053
D. of Col.	430,743	35,172	N. D.	327,844	35,374
Florida	1,082,389	200,676	Ohio	4,103,918	344,420
Georgia	1,533,488	461,871	Oklahoma	1,213,129	163,707
Idaho	274,871	14,416	Oregon	675,519	35,109
Illinois	4,828,402	461,518	Penna.	5,637,686	695,974
Indiana	2,004,404	155,081	R. I.	423,921	58,181
Iowa	1,471,287	60,653	S. C.	841,138	292,067
Kansas	1,047,818	64,196	S. D.	344,948	24,960
Kentucky	1,440,929	290,903	Tennessee	1,497,856	324,651
Louisiana	1,204,647	429,704	Texas	3,413,739	641,903
Maine	480,767	35,391	Utah	267,863	14,727
Maryland	1,054,688	161,552	Vermont	205,163	12,577
Mass.	2,621,072	264,623	Virginia	1,375,568	318,449
Michigan	3,006,579	305,173	Wash.	1,074,077	63,134
Minnesota	1,600,208	119,499	West Va.	928,303	153,368
Miss.	1,043,584	315,003	Wisconsin	1,808,745	169,209
Missouri	2,259,742	232,804	Wyoming	136,725	9,721

MATHEMATICS FOR ALL

HARL R. DOUGLASS

In the Mathematics Teacher

FOR a thousand years the world has been growing more and more mathematical. For a thousand years measurement and computation has been playing an increasingly significant part in the lives of everyone. A variety of factors, social and otherwise, have contributed to this tendency. The volume of business transactions has increased enormously—the selling of labor and products, and the purchasing of practically everything for consumption in the home. The housewife of 1880 was under no necessity of calculating what was the best buy. But the selfsufficient home has disappeared, and in its place has come a purchasing unit which compels us to think in precise quantitative terms. In the realm of social security; in fire, life, medical, and automobile insurance; in annuities and other forms of providing for the future; in the new forms of taxes, our need for computational thinking has increased many fold. In 1880 there was no calculation of how many miles to the bale of hay. In the construction and repair of buggies and wagons, measurement in thousandths of an inch was undreamed of.

In paradox to this marked increase in the mathematical needs of all of us, there has been a constantly decreasing percentage of children above the eighth grade studying mathematics. In 1900 more than three-fourths of all high-chool students were taking mathematics, while in 1940 the proportion was less than one in three. *What a cock-eyed world it is in which, as the need for mathematics becomes greater and more universal, the smaller is the percentage of high-school students studying it.*

There are good reasons why these inconsistent trends have occurred. The numbers of high-school students have approximately doubled every decade since 1880. Down to 1920 the high-school curriculum was avowedly college preparatory in function. Mathematics in the high school has been confined largely, in its practical values, to the needs of a small group of college-trained workers—chiefly engineers. It has had little to contribute to the practical needs of the average citizen, which called for arithmetic, intuitive and constructive geometry, and occasionally the simplest algebra. The mathematical needs of the home did not call for simultaneous equations or trigonometry, but for reasoning and accuracy in the use of arithmetic, of intuitive geometry, and of simple formulae.

The mathematics taught in the elementary school has indeed been of the type needed, but in practice

it has proved inadequate. The children there are too immature to understand or be interested in the life problems calling for mathematics. The applications are too complicated for 12-year-olds.

At a time when most students did not go beyond the elementary school it was perhaps defensible to crowd into the grades the mathematics needed in everyday life. But with the great increase in the number going on to high school the necessity for the premature introduction of difficult arithmetic disappeared, and appropriate readjustments are called for.

Today, when only one high-school freshman in ten will ever finish a year in college, the failure in high school to offer mathematics other than algebra, geometry, and trigonometry is not defensible from the point of view of the best interests of either the student or mathematics. Even the college-going student needs a much greater mastery of arithmetical processes—as any professor of science, accounting, or engineering will testify. The arbitrary location of all arithmetic in the first eight grades and only algebra, geometry, and trigonometry in the last four conforms neither to the educational needs of the present time nor to what we know of psychology—of the abilities and interests of the young people at the ages concerned.

In addition to the conventional sequence, there should be developed in the high school another series of offerings for the great majority of pupils. This should be composed largely of arithmetic and its applications to all phases of life. It should include considerable geometry of construction and measurement. It should also include, correlated with the arithmetic and geometry, at least six or seven months of algebra—literal and negative numbers, much work with simple equations and formulae, a large variety of applications, particularly to science, geographical representation, and some work with simpler statistical constants and procedures.

This sequence for the general school population might be organized in any of several ways. Among them might be mentioned the following, in addition to which there should be offered at least one year of algebra and one of geometry or trigonometry—both in the larger schools.

Plan A: Grades 8 through 12, inclusive. One semester or two or three hours a week throughout the year, including some algebra in each year, especially in grades 8-10, and required in all grades except 12 of all pupils not taking other mathematics. An additional elective of applied mathematics should probably be offered in grade 12, of the sort indicated in Plan B.

Plan B: (Based on two years of arithmetic in grades 7 and 8).

Tenth grade: one year (required) of applied arithmetic, formulas, and simplest algebra. Eleventh and twelfth grades: two or three electives of one semester each, with two being required of all students not taking other mathematics.

a) Mathematics of business.

b) Mathematics of science and shop.

c) Mathematics of home and consumer.

Plan C: The expansion and enrichment of mathematics now taught in grades 7 and 8 into a three-year course required in grades 7, 8, and 9. Grades 11 and 12 as under Plan B.

In any of these plans the pupil will get three or four semesters of general mathematics above the seventh grade before reaching the eleventh. Those who take two years of college preparatory mathematics in grades 11 and 12 would, by reason of increased maturity and of having some introduction to algebra and geometry, be able to complete second- and third-semester algebra in the eleventh grade and either plane and solid geometry, or a semester of geometry and one of trigonometry in the twelfth grade.

It will be noted that these plans require more mathematics than is the case in most schools today.

The courses in ninth-grade mathematics offered in some schools do not meet the needs of the situation. In too many cases they are really courses in algebra. Two essentially different types of sequence in high-school mathematics are needed—one a technical sequence for students who will engage in a scientific or engineering pursuit, the other a required sequence which meets the mathematical needs of all.

The chief obstacles to the rapid adoption of such a curriculum are "schoolmarms," male and female, who feel it beneath their dignity to teach any but "higher" mathematics, and college professors who say of the great mass of future citizens who have come into the high school in recent decades: "If they have not bread, let them eat cake." But public opinion and teachers of good sense will eventually force these types of school people—as has already occurred in other educational areas—to do what they should have done on their own initiative. Developments along the lines of the dual sequence mentioned above are sure to come—in fact are already on the way. Many junior high schools are offering three years of required mathematics and senior high schools are offering a semester or a year of noncollege preparatory mathematics.

Harl R. Douglass is Director of the College of Education, University of Colorado. Reported from the Mathematics Teacher, *XXXV (May, 1942), 212-16.*

TEACHER MANAGEMENT OF ILLUMINATION

A. O. Rahn

In the Clearing House

FOLLOWING is a check list which can be used by the teacher in managing classroom illumination:

1. Plants, books, magazines, etc., should never be placed in front of or on window sills as they cast shadows on working surfaces of desks and obstruct light.

2. Shades should be fastened to the center of the window so that they can be drawn to the top and to the bottom.

3. Pupils should not sit facing the light or work in their own shadows.

4. Seats and desks should be movable so that they may be placed in any part of the room—depending on the activity—and so that the best illumination on the working plane may be obtained.

5. Windows should be on the left of right-handed pupils to prevent shadows on their work when writing.

6. The teacher's desk should be placed away from the windows so that pupils will not have to look into a bright area.

7. Cover or remove shiny surfaces which reflect glare such as glass doors in cupboards, glass-covered pictures, highly polished desk tops, and glass-covered tables.

8. Bulletin boards, blackboards, maps, etc., should not be placed between windows.

9. Textbooks, assignment sheets, and other printed material should be printed on unglazed paper.

10. Select textbooks, maps, charts, etc., that are clearly printed, of reasonable size, and with diagrams, pictures, and graphs that are heavily outlined but clear.

11. Keep the lighting in efficient working order through proper maintenance by replacing lamps with new ones of the same wattage, cleaning luminaires periodically, washing walls, windows, ceilings, and shades at reasonable and regular intervals.

12. The teacher should never stand on the window side of the room when conducting a class recitation or giving instructions as this forces the pupils to face the light.

13. Do not have bookshelves built on the window side of the room as pupils getting books have to stand in the light of those working at their desks.

14. If a question arises concerning the eye condition of a pupil, consult the school health records, confer with the school nurse, and notify the parents and urge them to consult an eye specialist.

15. The teacher should assist the pupil with poor vision by seating him at a desk where the light is the best, providing special study material, and allowing more time for the preparation of lessons.

16. Window shades should be adjusted so as to avoid harsh shadows and glare, permit all the light possible to enter the room on a dark day, and give adequate light to *all* pupils.

17. Make certain that artificial lighting is used when and where daylight is insufficient.

18. Do not waste power. Adjust shades and then turn on artificial light as needed.

19. A bare light bulb should not be used as it gives off an extremely bright light.

20. Check illumination periodically with a light meter or ask your electric company to do so.

21. Eye specialists agree that better lighting in classrooms will benefit children by increasing the speed of vision, by improving posture, by promoting more efficient sight with less wasted energy, by providing more cheerful surroundings, and by insuring safer conditions for the eyes, nerves, and body and thus help to eliminate eyestrain which may cause backaches, blurring vision, digestive disturbances, dizziness, headaches, and nervous disorders.

In the junior high-school building at Waukesha, Wisconsin, it was found that on a bright day the light intensity falls off from 80 foot-candles on the row of desks nearest the windows to 17 foot-candles on the row farthest from the windows. On a cloudy day in the same building light intensity falls off from 55 foot-candles on the row of desks nearest the windows to four foot-candles on the row farthest from the windows.

It is sometimes impossible to have the required 14 foot-candles in all parts of the room because of changing conditions of clouds and sunlight. Constant adjustment of window shades and the turning off and on of lights is difficult. One method of meeting this problem is the installation of a photo-electric cell or "electric eye" which automatically turns the electric lights off and on so that 14 foot-candles of illumination are maintained in all parts of the room at all times.

School executives who believe that they are saving the taxpayers' money by cutting down on lighting are endangering the eyesight of children and handicapping their opportunity to learn.

A. O. Rahn is Vice-Principal in charge of the junior high-school division of the Waukesha, Wisconsin, Junior-Senior High School. Reported from Clearing House, *XVI (May, 1942), 550-52.*

CIVIC EDUCATION IN EUGENE HIGH SCHOOL

HARRY B. JOHNSON

In the Harvard Educational Review

CIVIC education as it is now organized in the Eugene, Oregon, High School probably had its beginnings some years ago when an enterprising teacher of senior social studies proposed to eliminate the compartments that existed in the social studies subjects.

"After all," he said, "the problems of society as they affect high-school students have social, economic, and political implications all rolled into one, and must be studied from this broader point of view."

Having removed the partitions, he proceeded to reorganize his techniques of presenting classroom materials. Instead of the bookish social studies lessons formerly followed, problems for investigation with committees and reports, with lively open discussions, were set up.

In a follow-up survey of three graduating classes, it was found that these vitalized classes stood at the top of the "likes," instead of at the bottom, as all too often happens in the case of required history, economics, and civics.

The curriculum of the Eugene schools is based on what we call the social functions approach. Our educational philosophy is based on the practical application of the democratic ideal. It believes that successful living in a democracy depends on an understanding of democracy and in the practice of democratic living from childhood on. The various functions of a democratic society form the core of the curriculum from the first through the twelfth grade. The social studies are the vehicle through which the school government is studied and operated.

In the junior high school and through the tenth grade in the senior high school, social studies, language arts, and guidance are fused and taught in a two-hour course under a teacher who becomes the counselor of his students. In the eleventh and twelfth grades, English becomes a separate subject and the social studies core continues on a one-hour basis.

In the six-year course, subject matter is tentatively allocated as follows:

Grade VII: Industrial problems considered from a regional viewpoint.

Grade VIII: The growth and development of American culture.

Grade IX: Contemporary problems of the community.

Grade X: The growth of mankind toward the democratic way of life.

Grade XI: American problems, with emphasis on backgrounds.

Grade XII: Contemporary American problems.

Throughout the entire core, emphasis is given to personal-social as-

pects and the needs of the individual. In the tenth grade, for example, as part of his orientation the new student studies the school's government. He is helped to understand the seriousness of school citizenship and learns to interpret school freedom and school conduct in the light of school democracy.

The eleventh and twelfth grade courses continue the study of school government and relate it to the larger community. In the eleventh grade such questions as these are asked: How did we get our civil rights and how can we keep them? How may I become an effective citizen of my class and school? Problems relating to government, conservation, industrialization, social security, Americanization, and international relations are considered. The twelfth grade considers such problems as: How can the American standard of living be improved? How can we eliminate unemployment? How can we become intelligent consumers? How can we recognize and deal with propaganda? How can war be eliminated? How can crime be prevented?

Civic education is not confined to social studies classes. For example, last fall a class, in its study of safety, came to the conclusion that something should be done about traffic safety in and around the school. So they applied to the student council for permission to organize a safety council. This small group attacked the problem in ways that gave them invaluable experience in democratic living. They go before the city council and its street committee, confer with the police department, call in violators in and about the school, learn to be appreciative of the vexatious problems that face the school administrators. By drawing into the group students with lax standards of safety, the committee was able to change the attitudes of many.

Student government is fused with the curriculum at many points but most markedly through the social studies. Each class section is a unit in the school government, with a representative on the student council and the right to initiate legislation. This plan has worked well from the standpoint of democracy since it gives a sense of belonging to many students. It also gives to the social studies a practical citizenship value that otherwise might be absent. The school has no homerooms; the social studies as organized fill that function satisfactorily.

The school carries on the usual program of extracurricular activities. Efforts are made to bring many of them into the school schedule. Thus there are classroom and subject-matter clubs that draw their groups directly from subject-matter fields. All music organizations are organized as classes and the school paper is published by a class. A large share of the school dramatics grows directly from class study and many

assembly programs are the result of classroom planning.

Some clubs are organized directly for service. These are active—they must be, or they are quickly dissolved by a watchful student council—in carrying out functions of service to the school. They furnish ushers, conduct visitors, help induct new students, plan assemblies, entertain visiting teams, promote welfare work. The school uses no monitors, hall patrols, or guards.

A third type of activity is the large number of hobby clubs.

There are some who say that a school democracy, such as this one, is only a game—that students and teachers are only playing at citizenship. But we believe that there are problems within the school community through which real experiences of a civic nature can become active—traffic, health and safety, taxation and finances, general welfare, community projects, regulation of conduct. Through the activities of student government experiences in cooperation are satisfied. The student government and other groups give opportunities for criticizing the school. We believe that the practice of free discussion, if carefully directed, is a learning process and is closely related to civic education. Pupils educate one another in habits of tolerance and cooperation. Pupils who are allowed to arrive at conclusions by open discussion become genuinely interested in the welfare of their school and eventually, we hope, in their community life.

No mention has been made of the political and patriotic aspects of democracy. We have them prominently in our program. Through many departments of the school—art, music, literature, history, drama, public speaking, assemblies, and clubs—the traditions of our country and loyalty to democracy are prepresented. We believe, however, in going beyond that. Important as are slogans and ceremonials, history books and assigned lessons, values equally important and probably more lasting are gained from experiences in democratic living supplied by wise teachers and parents and cooperative communities.

Harry B. Johnson is Principal of the Eugene, Oregon, High School. Reported from the Harvard Educational Review, *XII (March, 1942), 165-70.*

THE five states paying the highest salaries to teachers are: New York, California, New Jersey, Massachusetts, and Connecticut. The five paying the lowest salaries are: North Dakota, Alabama, South Carolina, Arkansas, and Mississippi.

PERSONALITIES: **John E. Wade** is the new superintendent of the New York City schools. He was deputy superintendent under the late Superintendent **Harold G. Campbell**. . . . **James F. Abel** has retired from the position as chief of the division of comparative education of the U. S. Office of Education. . . . **Harry A. Burke,** superintendent of the Kearney, Neb., schools, has been appointed superintendent at Great Falls, Mont. . . . **James L. Hymes, Jr.,** editor of *Progressive Education,* has been named director of the Hessian Hills School, Croton-on-Hudson, N. Y. . . . **Harry S. DeVore** is the new president of Central College, Fayette, Mo., succeeding the late **Robert H. Ruff**. . . . **Walton C. John,** senior specialist in higher education, U. S. Office of Education, died recently at the age of 61 years. . . . **Howard B. Carroll** is the new superintendent at Taunton, Mass. . . . **C. C. Green** has retired from the superintendency at New Castle, Penna., and his successor is **F. L. Burton**. . . . New superintendent of the Hanover Township Schools, Upper Darby, Penna., is **R. R. Abernethy**. . . . **Raymond R. Patty,** president of Birmingham-Southern College, has been appointed president of the University of Alabama. . . . **Fred W. Hostler,** has been named superintendent of the Allentown, Pa., schools. . . . **W. H. Lemmel,** superintendent of the Highland Park, Mich., schools, has been named superintendent at Wilmington, Dela. His successor at Highland Park is **Herman L. Shibler,** former superintendent at Birmingham, Mich. . . . **Charles E. Germane** of the department of education of the University of Missouri died recently. . . . **John E. Pomfret** of Vanderbilt University will succeed **John S. Bryan** as president of the College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Va. . . . **Dewey Barich** of the Michigan Board in Control of Vocational Education has been named head of the department of industrial education at Kent, Ohio, State University on the retirement of **Clinton S. Van Deusen**. . . . **George E. Dotson** of San Diego, Calif., State College, has been named president of Long Beach, Calif., Junior College. . . . **Ralph Witherspoon** has been appointed to the faculty of Central Michigan College of Education, Mt. Pleasant. . . . **Walter K. Greene** of Duke University is the new president of Wofford College, Spartanburg, S. C., succeeding **Henry N. Snyder** who has retired. . . . **Ellen C. Lombard,** specialist in parent education in the U. S. Office of Education, has retired after 30 years of service. . . . **W. T. Robinson** has retired as superintendent of the Chattanooga, Tenn., schools. His successor is **Lawrence G. Derthick,** assistant superintendent of the Nashville, Tenn., schools. . . . **James W. Maucker** has been named assistant professor of elementary education at the University

of Missouri. . . . **Franklin W. Johnson** has retired as president of Colby College and his successor is **Julius S. Bixler** of Harvard University. . . . **B. F. Stanton** has retired as superintendent of the Alliance, Ohio, schools and will be succeeded by **Russell E. Schafer,** superintendent of the Steubenville, Ohio, schools. . . . **L. R. Alderman,** principal specialist in adult education, U. S. Office of Education and director of the educational program of the WPA from 1934 to 1941, has retired from active service. . . . **E. B. Hargrave,** vice-principal of the George Washington High School, Indianapolis, Ind., is the new president of the Department of Secondary Teachers of the NEA. . . . **Clifford R. Hall** of the Natick, Mass., schools, has been named superintendent of the Arlington, Mass., schools to succeed the late **Joseph L. Keating**. . . . New president of the National Association of School Secretaries is **Betty Zimmerman** of Milwaukee, Wis. . . . **John H. McCoy** has been named director of the Santa Ana, Calif., Junior College. . . . Dean **D. L. Haught** of Concord State Teachers College, Athens, W. Va., has been elected president of Glenville, W. Va., State Teachers College and **David Kirby,** secretary of the State Board of Education, has been named dean at Concord State Teachers College. . . . **A. N. McCallum** has retired as superintendent of the Austin, Texas, schools. . . . **John L. Seaton** will retire next year from the presidency of Albion, Mich., College. . . . **E. I. F. Williams** of Heidelberg College has been named editor of the *Educational Forum,* published by Kappa Delta Pi, succeeding **Alfred L. Hall-Quest** who has been editor for more than 20 years. . . . **Wilbur R. Curtis** has resigned as superintendent of the Alton, Ill., schools. . . . **Henry T. Hollingsworth** has succeeded **Edgar S. Stover** as superintendent of the Bloomfield, N. J., schools on the latter's retirement. . . . **Walter S. Deffenbaugh,** chief of the U. S. Office of Education's American School System division, has retired. . . . **Thomas W. Butcher** has resigned as president of Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, effective next July 1. . . . **Charles A. Anderson,** president of Tusculum College, Tenn., has been named president of Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa. . . . **Forrest H. Kirkpatrick,** dean of students at Bethany College, W. Va., is now on leave of absence to work in the industrial relations department of the RCA Mfg. Co. . . . **C. E. Evans** has retired as president of Southwest Texas State Teachers College, San Marcos, and **John G. Flowers,** president of Lock Haven, Penna., State Teachers College, has been named his successor. . . . **Frank W. Parr** of Oregon State Teachers College, Monmouth, has been appointed executive secretary of the Oregon State Teachers Association. . . . **J. Frederick Weltzin**

is director of the new School of Education of Denver University. . . . **Harvey S. Bolan,** superintendent of the Ashland, Penna., schools, has been appointed superintendent of the Lebanon, Penna., public schools. . . . **Jesse B. Davis** has retired as dean of the school of education, Boston University. His successor is **Donald D. Durrell.** . . . **O. E. Hill** has been appointed assistant director of education, Ohio State Education Department. . . . **Harold F. Steele** has resigned as superintendent of the Jackson, Mich., schools. . . . **Leroy A. King,** president of Indiana, Penna., State Teachers College, died recently. . . . **David L. Crawford** has retired as president of the University of Hawaii, Honolulu, and **Gregg M. Sinclair** has been named his successor. . . . **J. C. Eddy** has joined the staff of the Idaho State Department of Education as assistant superintendent. He was formerly superintendent at Potlatch, Idaho. . . . Members of the faculty of the school of education, New York University, who retired this year are **Herman H. Horne, Daniel C. Knowlton, Ambrose L. Suhrie, Howard R. Driggs, Albert S. Pegues,** and **Rollin H. Tanner.** . . . **Harvey L. Turner** of Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, has succeeded **Willfred O. Mauck** as president of Hillsdale, Mich., College. . . . **Solon G. Ayers** has succeeded **G. Warren Spaulding** as superintendent of Haskell Indian Institute, Lawrence, Kans. . . . **D. Walter Potts** has retired as superintendent of the East St. Louis, Ill., schools. . . . **A. C. Flora,** superintendent of the Columbia, S. C., schools, was elected president of the National Education Association at the Denver convention this summer. . . . **John M. Potter** is the new president of Hobart and William Smith Colleges, Geneva, N. Y. . . . **Paul Boynton** of George Peabody College for Teachers has been named president of Stephen F. Austin State Teachers College, Nacogdoches, Texas, succeeding **A. W. Birdwell** who has retired. . . . **Harold H. Blanchard** is the new president of the department of classroom teachers of the NEA. . . . **Dan H. Eikenberry** has been appointed chairman of the department of education of Ohio State University. . . . **Frank A. Beu** of Eastern Illinois State Teachers College, Charleston, has become the president of Western Illinois State Teachers College, Macomb, succeeding **Walter P. Morgan.** . . . New members of the Maryland State Department of Education are **Grace L. Adler** as supervisor of elementary schools, **Wilbur Devilbiss** as supervisor of high schools for the southern section, and **David W. Zimmerman** as supervisor of special education. . . . . **Carl S. Knopf,** president of Willamette University, Salem, Ore., died recently. His successor is **G. Herbert Smith** of Depauw University. . . . **Hilda**

Maehling has been appointed to the new position of executive secretary of the department of classroom teachers of the NEA. . . . **Lou L. LaBrant** of Ohio State University has been named professor of English education at New York University. . . . **William P. Tolley,** president of Allegheny College, Meadville, Penna., has been named chancellor of Syracuse University. . . . **E. C. Woodburn** has retired as president of Black Hills Teachers College, Spearfish, N.D., his successor being **Russell E. Jonas**. . . . **Henry H. Hill,** dean of the University of Kentucky, succeeds the late **Ben G. Graham** as superintendent of the Pittsburgh, Penna., schools. . . . **C. C. Trillingham** has been elected superintendent of the Los Angeles, Calif., county schools. . . . **Charles B. Glenn** has retired as superintendent of the Birmingham, Ala., schools, his successor being **L. Frazer Banks,** assistant superintendent. . . . **John L. Miller** has resigned as superintendent of the Brockton, Mass., schools and accepted the superintendency at Great Neck, N. Y. . . . **O. M. Chute** is a new member of the staff of Northern Illinois State Teachers College, De Kalb. . . . **Will French** of Teachers College, Columbia University, and former superintendent of the Long Beach, Calif., schools has been granted a leave of absence to serve as superintendent at Long Beach during the absence of Superintendent **K. E. Oberholtzer** who is serving in the army. . . . **Warren E. Bow,** deputy superintendent, has succeeded **Frank Cody** as superintendent of the Detroit, Mich., schools on the latter's retirement. . . . **Robert F. Thompson** has been named president of the College of Puget Sound, Tacoma, Wash. . . . **John D. Spragins** is the new president of Arkansas College, Batesville. . . . **Irving W. Smith,** former superintendent at Great Falls, Mont., has been appointed senior specialist in school facilities, U. S. Office of Education. His headquarters are San Francisco, Calif. . . . **T. P. Calkins,** president of Hofstra College, Hempstead, N. Y., died recently. . . . **Lawrence D. Haskew** has been appointed associate professor of education, Emory University, Ga. . . . **Edgar M. Tanruther** of North Dakota State Teachers College, Minot, has been named director of the McGuffey Schools, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, on the retirement of **John W. Heckert**. . . . **John M. Fewkes** of Chicago is the new president of the American Federation of Teachers. . . . **August L. Strand,** president of Montana State College, Bozeman, has been elected president of Oregon State College, Corvallis. . . . **John D. Williams** of the University of Kentucky is the new president of Marshall College, Huntington, W. Va.

FINANCIAL assistance will be given to certain college students needing assistance by the federal govern-

ment under the provisions of a plan worked out by the U. S. Office of Education on recommendation of its Wartime Commission and approved by Congress. Loans have been authorized for students in engineering, physics, chemistry, medicine, dentistry, and pharmacy who are within two years of completing their work and are registered in accelerated programs in degree-granting colleges and universities. Students must agree to engage in such employment or service as directed by the War Manpower Commission on completion of their studies. Loans will be made in amounts not exceeding tuition and fees plus $25 per month and not exceeding a total of $500 during any 12-month period. Each student borrower will have to execute a note payable to the Treasurer of the United States with interest at 2½ percent.

PHI DELTA KAPPA has relinquished the publishing rights to *Education Abstracts* to William W. Brickman of New York University and associates. The new address of the publication is 32 Washington Place, New York, N. Y.

AN experimental program in pilot training is under way in 21 high schools throughout the country under the direction of the CAA. This is the same program which has been offered through the colleges and universities since 1939. The minimum age requirement has been dropped to 17 and applicants must be regularly enrolled in high school. Applicants must also enlist in the reserve of the armed air forces. The experimental program apparently anticipates extension of the activity to high schools generally if the plan works out for youth of high-school age.

A JUNIOR salvage corps of 30 million boys and girls of school age is being organized to conduct a nation-wide, house-to-house canvass of scrap materials. The conservation division of the War Production Board is working with the U. S. Office of Education on the program.

THE Educational Policies Commission is planning the first national teachers meeting by radio for September 28 at 6:30 P.M., EWT. The program is to be divided into two parts. The first 30 minutes will consist of a broadcast address by a prominent national leader on the part of the schools in our nation's war program. Local schools are urged to organize a panel discussion or other type of meeting to precede or follow the broadcast and relating the general topic to local problems.

NEW school buses will be allocated to school districts if they follow a definite program of conservation worked out by the National Council of Chief State School Officers.

Applications for buses will be channeled through state departments of education who will determine if the request is justified under the council's program which calls for reorganization of all bus routes, where needed, to eliminate duplications, less-than-capacity loads, and unnecessary trips. Specific recommendations include: (1) transportation should not be provided for pupils who have less than two miles to walk except in special cases; (2) transportation should not be provided for pupils who live in areas served by public carriers; (3) use of school buses should be limited to carrying pupils to and from school or projects which are a necessary part of the school program thus eliminating use of buses for athletic and music contest trips; (4) staggering of hours for opening and closing schools so that a bus could serve two or more schools on the same trip; (5) permission for pupils to stand in buses when safety is not endangered; and (6) reduction of stops to a minimum.

THE degree of Master of Arts in Teaching established at Harvard University in 1936 has been reorganized so that it is possible for competent students from good colleges to attain the degree after one year of graduate study.

THE EDUCATION DIGEST has received a letter from Herbert B. Mulford, member of the Wilmette, Ill., Board of Education and prominent in school board affairs in his state which contains a suggestion meriting the attention of our readers. Says Mr. Mulford:

"Current association surveys of teacher and board reading habits show two striking negative attitudes. The administrator often closes his mind to the existence of worthwhile magazines that could be used by teachers or board members alike. Rarely are even the magazines the school library subscribes for placed on any 'book shelf for school boards,' largely because such a shelf does not exist.

"It occurs to me that 'the education of the school board,' which is almost ignored by educational magazines and commentary of more formal character, would be assisted if publications like your own were to ask professional men and women using the periodical to make their copies available to their board associates."

IN order to relieve transportation facilities, colleges and preparatory schools have been asked by the Office of Defense Transportation to schedule their opening and closing dates so that travel to and from schools will occur in midweek.

THE American Red Cross is seeking social welfare workers and educators to perform Red Cross services to military units, both in this country and abroad. The workers give coun-

sel to men in the armed forces about personal and family problems, plan and organize recreational activities, and interpret Red Cross service to the military authorities. Men are needed as counselors and advisers, recreation directors, and club directors. Women are needed for club and recreational work and as medical and psychiatric social workers, case workers, and recreation specialists in hospitals. Workers in this country receive from $135 to $200 per month. Those stationed abroad receive from $150 to $275 plus an additional $50 per month maintenance allowance in military centers and full maintenance in club work. Uniforms are provided. Those assigned abroad are also provided with certain insurance protection. Communications should be addressed to Personnel Service, National Headquarters, American Red Cross, Washington, D. C.

THE National Geographic Society, of Washington, D. C., announces that publication of its illustrated *Geographic School Bulletins* for teachers will be resumed early in October. These bulletins are issued weekly, five bulletins to the weekly set, for 30 weeks of the school year. They embody pertinent facts for classroom use from the stream of geographic information that pours daily into the Society's headquarters from every part of the world. The bulletins are illustrated from the Society's extensive file of geographic photographs. Teachers may order bulletins in quantities for class use, to be sent to one address, but 25 cents must be remitted for each subscription.

THREE-QUARTERS of the private boarding schools, according to the results of a school survey announced by N. W. Ayer & Son, Inc., expect enrolments this fall as large as or larger than they had a year ago. Fifty-six percent of them had already equaled or exceeded their last year enrolments in mid-July. Military schools are filling rapidly, some of them having completed enrolments of new students last June. All expect to have every room occupied. Enrolments in boys' nonmilitary schools, however, have not fallen off as much as many educators had expected. Eighty percent of these schools expect enrolment this year to equal or exceed that of last year. Vocational and professional schools, however, have been hard hit. The survey shows only 35 per cent of such schools expect to do as well as a year ago.

VOCATIONAL training for war workers will occupy the principal attention of the newly appointed Committee on Education of the United States Chamber of Commerce, Eric A. Johnston, Chamber President, has announced. The Chamber's Education Committee has been cooperating with the Conference Committee of the American Association

of School Administrators to bring about closer coordination of business, educational, labor, and other interested groups in community programs designed to hasten the tempo of wartime job training. The two cooperating committees jointly issued a handbook in March on *Vocational Training in Wartime*. The book contains basic information on public and private agencies concerned with the training of war workers. In March the committees also inaugurated a bi-monthly bulletin service—*Wartime Job Training*—which provides current information on programs operating in all sections of the country.

DATE OF THE MONTH:

September 28-October 2, National Recreation Congress, Cincinnati, Ohio.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

October 1-3, Winfield Education Clinic, Winfield, Kansas.

October 5-7, National Association of Public School Business Officials, Cleveland, Ohio.

October 8-10, National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, Cleveland, Ohio.

November 8-14, American Education Week.

November 26-28, National Council for Social Studies, New York City.

Special Subscription Rates

Special subscription rates are available on bulk orders of five or more magazines sent to one address. A number of school systems take advantage of the special bulk rate to place a copy of the EDUCATION DIGEST in each building. Many groups of teachers and students preparing to teach have found the special rate advantageous. Write for full details.

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NEW BOOKS

Elementary

Bertha M. Parker. The Basic Science Education Series: *Toads and Frogs; Magnets; Thermometers, Heat and Cold; Life through the Ages; Heat; Earth's Changing Surface; Reptiles; Flowers, Fruits, Seeds; The Garden and its Friends.* Evanston: Row, Peterson and Company. Illus., each 36 pp. 28c.

E. L. Thorndike. *Thorndike Century Junior Dictionary.* Revised. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co. 940 pp. $1.48.

Eric Bender, editor. The Way of Life Series: George Oslin, *Talking Wires;* Rear Admiral Yates Stirling, Jr., *Warriors of the Sea;* James Watt Raine, *Saddlebag Folk;* Col. R. Ernest DuPuy, *To the Colors;* Ralph Bennitt, *Rolling Stones;* Ralph Jester, *Talking Shadows;* Squadron Commander Albert H. Munday, *Captains of the Sky;* Victor Schoffelmayer, *Here Comes Tomorrow;* Henry L. Williams, *Keep 'Em Flying;* Mary Simkhovitch and Elizabeth Ogg, *Quicksand;* James Stevens, *Timber;* Eric Bender, *Island Gateway.* Evanston: Row, Peterson and Co. Illus., each 64 pp. 58c.

Secondary

Basic Social Education Series. Frank Bright and Janet Zimmermann, *Our Inland Seas, The Great Lakes;* Frederick V. Waugh, *Trade and Commerce;* Russell Cumley, *America's Oil;* Margaret Thomson, *Money and Banks;* Fred Crane, *Planning Cities;* Ruth Barry, *Wise Consumer;* Walter A. Wittich, *The Newspaper in American Life;* E. W. Andrews, *Looking Ahead.* Evanston: Row, Peterson and Co., each 48 pp. 32c.

William L. Wrinkle and Robert S. Gilchrist, *Secondary Education for American Democracy.* New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 541 pp. $2.75.

Wilford M. Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study.* Vol. I of the Report of the Eight-Year Study. New York: Harper and Brothers. 155 pp. $1.75.

Ernest E. Bayles and R. Will Burnett, *Biology for Better Living.* New York: Silver Burdett Co. 736 pp. $2.28.

Paul E. and Natalia Maree Belting, *The Modern High School Curriculum.* Champaign, Ill.: The Garrard Press. 270 pp.

William B. Brown, Maxwell S. Stewart, and Walter E. Myer. *America in a World at War.* New York: Silver Burdett Co. 321 pp. $1.80.

General

Archibald Hart and F. Arnold Lejeune. *The Latin Key to Better English.* New York: E. P. Dutton and Co. 227 pp. $2.00.

Louis Adamic. *What's Your Name?* A story of the serious problems faced by millions of Americans who bear foreign-sounding names. New York: Harper and Brothers. 245 pp. $2.50.

John Addison Clement, *Manual for Analyzing and Selecting Textbooks.* Champaign, Ill.: The Garrard Press. 119 pp. $2.00.

Paul T. David, *Barriers to Youth Employment.* Prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education. 110 pp. $1.75.

Americans All: Studies in Intercultural Education. Washington: Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association. 385 pp. $2.00.

Arthur I. Gates, Arthur T. Jersild, T. R. McConnell, and Robert C. Challman. *Educational Psychology.* New York: The Macmillan Co. 787 pp. $3.00.

CHARTER FOR WAR SERVICE BY HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS

A Statement of a Committee of the Wartime Commission of the U. S. Office of Education

THIS brief statement concerns wartime organizations in secondary schools. Its focus is on student organizations, which to serve effectively in preparing youth for war service must be fundamentally related to the curriculum and courses of study. The Committee feels that the following general principles should govern the major school organizations for war services:

1. Opportunity should be provided through the schools for all in-school young people to participate in organized war effort.

2. War needs demand that many of the usual extracurricular organizations of secondary schools give place to carefully planned war service organizations and that other existing organizations substitute war service programs for their usual peacetime programs.

3. Student organizations concerned with the war effort should be under the control of school authorities who should also have a part in the initiation and formulation of plans for activities to be carried on through the schools.

4. All phases of war service should receive appropriate emphasis and recognition. The success of the total war effort should not be imperiled by overemphasis on some activities and the neglect of others.

5. Each pupil should have opportunity to render the service for which he is best fitted, and which will make the largest contribution to the total war effort, in terms of his health, maturity, and total responsibilities.

6. The war service programs and activities of school-sponsored organizations should be in accordance with policies established by the federal government.

The committee recommends the establishment in each secondary school of a school-wide organization consisting of all pupils who are engaged in war services or are preparing for participation in the war effort. Membership in this organization would be open to all members of the school engaged in war services, such as civilian defense activities, war savings programs, salvage campaigns, food production and conservation movements, and to all enrolled in courses preparatory to service in war production and in the armed forces.

Special emphasis should be given at this time to those organizations designed to provide preparation for the air forces and the related supporting services.

Members of the committee which drafted this charter are: A. L. Threlkeld, chairman; Francis S. Chase, secretary; Paul Elicker, A. G. Grace, Harry A. Jager, C. A. Jessen, Warren W. Knox, John Lund, and W. A. Ross.